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Has the War Taught American Teachers Anything?

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"Education in its widest sense includes everything that exerts a formative influence and causes a young person to be at a given point what he is." So wrote Mark Hopkins a hundred years ago. But the sentiment, like all fundamental truth, has a timeless quality. It is as pertinent today as it was a century ago.

War itself, though primarily a destructive agency, often engages in the surgical operation of removing cancerous tissues, and likewise serves in the role of teacher to mankind. It teaches lessons which society in normal times is either too lazy or too preoccupied to learn. The present war is no exception. It is a severe, a cruel schoolmaster. But failure to learn the lessons it brings may well lead to overwhelming disaster. These lessons are not solely the concern of the teacher in the schoolroom, since teachers make up but one of many agencies which contribute to the character development of young persons.

However, there is constant danger that the vast army of teachers may concern themselves too much with the planning of daily lessons and with what goes on within the walls of the school to the exclusion of the movement of life in the community outside. There is a higher function for teachers. They should become self constituted chiefs of staff to study social trends and should accept the role of community guides and prophets.

What are some of the lessons of the present conflict? Huge libraries have been compiled about past wars, even about World War I. And larger libraries will be compiled about the present war.

Pastor Niemoeller, released from a Nazi prison was asked what could be done in an educational way for the German people. His reply was that Germans from 22 to 30 years of age are hopeless; the group from 16 to 22 could be reached because their critical faculties are still alert. The group over 30, he declared, were stunned since they had taken orders from those in Nazi authority and now find themselves without anyone to give them orders. The answer of Pastor Niemoeller points to education and training of a specialized sort as the explanation for the present state of mind of the German population. At another time the former pastor and former U-boat commander, remarked that in his opinion the German people at present are not competent to operate democratic government.

For Americans interested in accounting for the brutal system which has been sending the flower of our youth to untimely graves and in accumulating a national debt that may yet crush our economic way of life the question is, how and why did the German population, young and old, accept the Nazi philosophy of life? The question is not idle and academic. It is a life and death question and cannot be ignored.

Furthermore, the question cannot be answered merely by perusing the pages of *Mein Kampf*, or by studying Hitler's rapid rise to power. Only a brief part of the answer is there, the deceptively simple part. Neither Hitler's program nor the Youth Movement which Hitler found ready-made would have been possible without centuries of fundamental preparation. To answer the question adequately

would call for more than one short article. It would require a bulky volume. Hence, all that can be attempted here is to set down a few footnotes or suggestive starting points for the inquiry.

The movement which culminated in the moral, economic and political collapse of Germany did not begin with the Beer Hall Putsch. It goes back at least as far as the establishment of modern Prussia by Frederick William I, the father of Frederick the Great. Frederick William I cannot be credited with inventing the philosophy of force. But at all events he gave a powerful acceleration to that influence in German history. It was this harsh, old miser who gave the following instructions to the tutors responsible for teaching his son, Frederick:

Above all let both tutors exert themselves to the utmost to inspire him with a love of soldiery, and carefully impress upon his mind that, as nothing can confer honor and fame upon a prince except the sword, the monarch who seeks not his whole satisfaction in it must ever appear a contemptible character in the eyes of the world.

The son proved to be an apt pupil. In 1740 he succeeded to the throne of Prussia and carried out on an even grander scale the benevolent despotism of his father.

Under Frederick, Prussia became one of the great powers of Europe. Governmental and educational policies were crystalized. Harsh and efficient government was established. Thrift and prosperity were encouraged, not because the ruler loved his people but rather to make it possible to raise money enough to equip larger armies. Efficiency in education, in industry, even in morals served just one purpose, the aggrandizement of the State. To the benevolent despot people are never an end in themselves, but rather a means to an end. In the century following Frederick the Great, although the rulers never rose to the stature or genius of Frederick, none of them departed an iota from the policy of benevolent despotism.

In the middle of the nineteenth century Prussia had arrived at such perfection in educational development that her school system became the model for the whole world. American students flocked to the German universities and American universities were modeled

after their German prototypes. Horace Mann halted his Herculean labors as Secretary of the Massachusetts Board of Education for one-half year in 1843 in order that he might see the European schools with his own eyes. In his famous *Seventh Report* he gave the results of his inspection. He pronounced the Prussian schools the best that he had seen, and the English the worst. It is one of the ironies of history that the climax of Prussian education should be found in the Hitler Youth Movement. In all the wealth of excellence did the Prussian schools lack some one thing? Horace Mann in all of his enthusiasm reported ruefully that he could not approve the link between the schools and the State religion. If Horace Mann had gone one step further and pointed to the complete regulation of the schools by the State he would have listed two powerful indictments against the Prussian system. Paternalism and propaganda are two boon companions, excellent bedfellows always.

Anyone who wishes to know what the German people were thinking about in the latter part of the nineteenth century can easily find out by examining the teachings of their leaders of thought—the leaders who in their youth had practiced the goose step, had attended the various grades of schools, and imbibed the national philosophy. In 1850 Arthur Schopenhauer was 62 years old. Many years before he had published his book, *The World as Will and Idea*, and the public completely ignored his writings. Then, suddenly, his pessimism caught the public fancy. His books were read by the public and studied in the universities. Schopenhauer pretended that he was simply improving on the idealism of Emmanuel Kant. Actually he was clothing the philosophy of force with an emotional and intellectual garb. The way out for Schopenhauer was the complete negation of the *individual* will and the merging of the individual in the State.

Another leader of thought, starting as a disciple of Schopenhauer, also, at first completely ignored, was Frederick William Nietzsche 1844-1900. Nietzsche was the son of a minister who in turn was the descendant of a line of ministers. In 1899 Nietzsche became totally insane. Up to the time of his insanity, his books were wholly ignored. Then suddenly they swept into popularity. It was Nietzsche

who taught, "the superman is the meaning of the earth"; that Christianity must be repudiated together with our traditional morality, as weak and decadent. "The present European standards," he writes, "are those of slaves." Nietzsche even affirms that they have become such largely through a deliberate plot of the Jews, made at the beginning of the Christian era. In his book *Anti-Christ* he writes: "Ye have heard men say, 'Blessed are the peacemakers,' but I say unto you 'Blessed are the war makers.'" At about the same time the military leader Von Moltke declared that the real ballot was the cartridge which the soldier carried in his cartridge box. A foremost professor of history, Treitschke, who spoke with the blessing of the emperor, taught his classes that the State was above morality.

Let us conclude these brief notations with one more writer whose works were widely read, Friedrich von Bernhardt. Here are some of his choice discoveries: "If it were not for war, we should probably find that inferior races would overcome the healthy, youthful ones by their wealth and numbers." Again he declares: "We must strenuously combat the peace propaganda. We must become convinced that war is a political necessity, and that it is fought in the interest of biological, social, and moral progress."

All that is claimed for the list of citations given is that it is representative; that it correctly represents the prevailing temper of the people. William Graham Sumner used to impress upon his students at Yale the need of applying the following test to all claims or assertions: "Is it true, how do you know it is true, and *what of it?*" Since all the statements are in the public record, all we need to inquire is "What of it?"

Horace Mann reported enthusiastically on the effective teaching methods which he witnessed in Prussia. He liked particularly the freedom of the teacher and the class from enslavement to a textbook. He liked the oral type of teaching. Probably no one has documentary proof that the same excellence of teaching which characterized the Prussian schools over so many years continued up to and through the time of the Third Reich. But if we may draw conclusions from the competency of refugee

children who have been coming to our shores from the Third Reich and entering our schools there was no decline in the quality of instruction. It is a safe conclusion that Germany did not go down to destruction because the schoolmasters failed to teach with their accustomed skill. On the contrary disaster finally came to Germany because her entire people were too well instructed—too thoroughly instructed in a cult called totalitarianism. It was the subject matter of instruction that was at fault, not the skill in teaching it.

When the present war broke out sweeping charges were aimed at the methods practiced in American schools. We were told that our youth were soft and that our teachers had made them soft. School administrators succumbed to the hysteria. Instructors in physical training and the so-called health education were directed to introduce toughening exercises. Thereafter it was not an uncommon sight to see pupils carrying their arms in slings or hobbling about on crutches. The yielding of schoolmen to the clamor of fear was premature. It is more than doubtful whether the toughening exercises had any effect in making school children better soldiers. The important consideration is that all such methods of meeting the foes of democracy ignore the death-dealing weapon which democracy has always wielded, namely, the spirit of the man behind the gun. It is not prize fighters and men of brawn who have won the battles of freedom. Cromwell's Ironsides were very ordinary looking townsmen with no training in the martial arts. Silly as it may seem, they went into battle singing their Puritan hymns. But Cromwell liked to remind us that his Ironsides were never defeated.

Furthermore, democracy is a spiritual force, not a materialistic force. Totalitarianism, whether of the communistic or fascistic breed is frankly atheistic, materialistic, and deterministic. As such they are not even scientific according to the latest findings of advanced scientists. Sir Arthur Eddington says:

Materialism and determinism, those household gods of nineteenth century science, which believed that this world could be explained in mechanical and biological concepts as a well run machine, every cog of

which moved in relation to other cogs, must be discarded by modern science, this to make room for a spiritual conception of the universe and man's place in it.

Or if anyone likes the words any better take the statement: "The relation of one's soul to the divine soul." This is the rock on which fascism split and foundered. By the same token communism belonging to the same family can look for no better fate.

Someone may inquire whether this is indulging in mere wishful thinking, in other words rationalizing. Is there any proof in experience or in the pages of history that democracy as an instrument of government is superior to autocracy? There is such proof. Some years ago Professor Edward P. Cheyney, whose scholarly authority no one would question, made such a study.¹ He selected three periods in English history that were relatively similar as to problems. To these periods which represent respectively, autocratic, aristocratic, and democratic government he applied five tests to determine which of the three types proved superior.

The first period, from 1600 to 1618, represents the autocratic government of the closing years of Elizabeth's reign and the major part of the reign of James I. The second period, 200 years later, from 1800 to 1818, represents the aristocratic rule of the so-called "ruling classes." Parliament was the real ruler, but represented only about 100,000 of the population. The third period, the democratic period from 1900 to 1918 represents England after a century of struggle and progress toward complete democracy.

Five tests of efficiency are applied. First, is the financial test. How were taxes levied, collected, and expended in the democratic period as compared with the other periods? The record shows that they were collected more justly, more effectively, and with a higher regard for social benefits in the democratic period than in either the autocratic or aristocratic periods. The second test is effectiveness in war. Democracies are not more inclined to war than autocracies. Quite the contrary, they are slow and hesitant, bungling, and, as in the

present war, criminally wasteful. But the results speak for themselves in the three periods. Democracy carries no guarantee of peace, but if war does come, the record shows that democracy will fight more effectively. The third test is the treatment of dependencies. How did England treat Ireland in the time of Elizabeth or James I as compared with the treatment under democracy? How has England treated Canada, Australia, South Africa in the three periods? Fourth, which type of government has done most for the encouragement of literature? The burst of literary genius in the reign of Elizabeth and of James I owed little or nothing to the government. In the intellectual history of England, plain democratic government has been more friendly to things of the mind than either of the other types. The fifth, and last test, is the service of the government to human progress. Autocratic and aristocratic government has turned coldly away from humanitarian reforms. Democratic government has proved more discerning and more ardent in efforts to lift the lives of all citizens.

This summary does poor justice to Professor Cheyney's analysis, but it will serve at least to explain the method of inquiry.

The present war gives further proof that ought to be accepted as conclusive that democratic government is a superior form of government. General Omar N. Bradley, returning for a brief call to America, gave forth the following statement:

American troops are the best ever put in the field by any nation in the history of the world. They are better educated; they have more initiative. The French and Belgians said our equipment made the German equipment look meager and obsolete.

Those who believe in American ideals should take heart. American teachers who have striven through the years to implant those ideals have evidence before their eyes that their faith has not been in vain. With the words of General Bradley ringing in our ears how can anyone be so simple and naive as to demand that we should drag from the cemeteries of the old world the vicious system of peace-time conscription. American patriotism and love of American ideals did not develop with the practice of the goose step.

¹ *Law in History and Other Essays*, Chapter IV (New York: F. S. Crofts and Company, 1927). Summary given with the permission of the publishers.

Education for Peace

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The end of history's greatest war and the advent of a possible era of peace bring educators abruptly face to face with a challenge. Can a third world holocaust be avoided? What can educators do to help to avoid it? Now as never before, the truth of H. G. Well's pithy verdict stands out—"History is a race between catastrophe and education." Which will win?

There is little reason to believe that the destructive powers of released atomic energy will create a fear of self-destruction that will by itself prevent another conflict. War has always carried with it the hazard of national defeat, destruction and humiliation. Always the thought of the leaders who have sought to attain their ends by war has been that their superior strength, or skill, or surprise, would save them from destruction while inflicting it upon their enemies. The increased destructiveness of war throughout the past century, involving the horrors of submarine warfare, air war, poison gas, and ever-increasing fire power, have not dissuaded the militarists from plunging their countries into war, and there is no reason to believe that this most recent addition to the arsenal of destruction, fearful though it is, will be more effective.

If there remain, or re-appear, leaders who hope to achieve their aims by the forceful conquest of alien people, they will again put their trust in their own courage and cunning to devise a more devastating type of atomic bomb, or a quicker, surer way to obliterate the enemy. The discovery of the atomic bomb has put an even greater premium on surprise aggression. It appears not nearly so likely to make the recent world war the last one as to make the next one the last one, for none might remain to wage another.

The danger of the atomic bomb, like the danger of the victory it has brought us, lies in the fact that it may lull the peoples of the world into a complacent feeling that world peace has been achieved. Permanent peace can never be won, once and for all time. Peace, like democracy, must be re-won and then won

again, year after year, discussion after discussion, triumph after triumph of reason over force.

History is a race between catastrophe and education, and the pace is growing faster, the race closer. Superforts, flame-throwers, and atomic bombs versus arbitration, international agreements, and a world of united nations! Can schoolmen the world over help to swing the balance toward peace?

There are several paths to peace, all of them necessary. An international organization with effective powers of enforcing its will, a continuous adjustment of economic frictions so that possibilities for improved material well-being are available to all of the peoples of the world, a supervision of the war-making potential of all of the nations of the world—all these are necessary, and one thing more: *the will to peace*. A lasting peace must rest ultimately upon general good will, and good will cannot be legislated. It must be cultivated, continuously, laboriously, and always with the hope that education will outdistance catastrophe.

If, as Robert Hutchins suggests: "Education is the deliberate attempt to form human character in terms of an ideal," and if constructive peaceful activity is part of our ideal, then education's responsibility is determined.

How can education contribute, more than it has to date, to the creation of a will for peace? (Which must not be confused with the traditional concept of pacifism). The activities of the school, and especially of the social studies department, contribute much to the student's concept of the world in which he lives. They help to mold his opinion of our national policies, his attitudes toward other countries, and his judgment as to whether a lasting peace can be achieved, and if so, how? If we accept the maintenance of a lasting peace as one of our ideals, the function of education to contribute to the building of character in conformity with our ideals, and the necessity of a will toward peace as a basis upon which peace can be built,

then the duty of the schools to foster a will toward peace must follow.

The suggestions that follow apply not merely to our own country, but, with national variations, to all countries of the world. We can apply them directly in our own schools and take the initiative in suggesting them in other parts of the world, not merely by our example, but through our leadership in the soon-to-be-established International Office of Education and through voluntary international meetings of educators.

Isolationism as a political doctrine is dead. It has been renounced by all political parties in our government and persists in public utterance only by a scanty scattered few. Yet isolationism persists in the background thinking of many, and will persist so long as we are taught from isolationist textbooks. The United States history textbooks used in our schools today are isolationist texts. They are isolationist because they recount the history of an isolationist policy. And since our history has been a virtuous history, isolation becomes, in the mind of the student, ipso facto virtuous. Washington's Farewell Address still looms large in the American history course, and, since Washington is venerated, as he should be, the dread of alliances expressed in that address is interpreted by the student as basically good, not just for Washington's time, but for all time.

The historical value of this isolationism to an emerging country, the factors which have caused it to become outmoded, notably the rapid technological advances in transportation, communication, and methods of warfare, and the alternatives to isolation, should all be fairly and objectively treated in our national histories.

This is not to suggest that the textbooks should be made a propaganda tool for internationalism, any more than that they should remain an unconscious tool for isolation. The task of the historian is to present as objectively as is possible the events and forces that have molded our history. In his selection, as well as in his interpretation, of historical material, he must be always sensitive to the forces that may apparently be present in our history only in a minor and inconspicuous way, but which later prove to be indications of a significant trend.

The need is present for a re-interpretation of the history of our international relations in terms of the significant changes of the past few decades.

It is perhaps natural that the textbook treatment of international affairs should highlight the periods of conflict. Wars do represent important turning points in national policy, dramatic turning points, vivid pages of exciting reading. But they do not necessarily represent the contribution of their period to our national development in proportion to the pages devoted to them. Our textbooks still devote chapters to wars, but only lines, or at most paragraphs, to international cooperation. Who is to say that the First World War was thirty times as important in our national development as the League of Nations? Will the recent World War similarly be accorded thirty times the space devoted to the constructive activities of the United Nations?

Although there has been a marked and commendable reduction in recent texts in the amount of space devoted to the purely military aspects of the various wars, there is still lacking the positive counterpart of attention to international relations other than wars.

The history of America's peaceful cooperation with other nations, though less dramatic than the history of her wars, may have contributed as much or more to the establishment of precedents upon which our future international relations may be conducted, precedents of which the high school student should be aware.

How many of our high school graduates (and three fourths of our youth do not pursue their formal education beyond high school) are aware that a century and a quarter ago a great South American leader proposed a Pan-American Union, which failed partly because of the belated and half-hearted cooperation of the United States? How many know that the Rush-Bagot Agreement at about the same time established the unique and successful precedent of an unfortified boundary between two continental nations that had twice been at war in the preceding half century, never in the century and a quarter following? How many realize that reciprocal trade agreements were proposed and enacted by Congress more than once

in the half century before Cordell Hull, and that William McKinley himself lauded the reciprocity idea, the day before his assassination? How many have learned of the dozen areas of peaceful cooperation in the solution of economic and social problems successfully effected by agencies of the League of Nations, many of them with the United States participating?

These items are mentioned in some of our texts, but only casually mentioned, while the wars are emphasized. The proposal made here is for a shift of emphasis in the treatment of international relations toward a more balanced proportion between wars and other relations. Our history contains far more precedents for international cooperation and far more examples of success in the peaceful solution of international problems than our students are ever helped to appreciate. However, much has already been accomplished in correcting this error. Some of the newer texts show signs that authors are aware that our international relations have consisted of more than a series of wars and peace treaties.

An example of an area of constructive peaceful international relations largely neglected in our textbooks is the history of our relations with Canada. Recent studies by Hauck¹ and Gell² document the appalling ignorance of Americans of our relations with our northern neighbor, although the two countries have significantly affected the destinies of each other. Most Americans do not realize that the exodus of Tories from the colonies to Canada at the time of our revolutionary war helped to create there a population core that was to help to bind the two nations together culturally. Few are aware that our Civil War and the accompanying Anglo-American friction created in Canada the fear of another British-American war in which Canada would again be the battleground, which led to that tremendous step in Canada's constitutional development, Confederation. Many, too, are unaware of the independent status now held by Canada (and the other

¹Arthur A. Hauck, *Some Educational Factors Affecting the Relations Between Canada and the United States*. (Easton, Pennsylvania, 1932).

²Kenneth Gell, "What American High School Graduates Should Know About Canada." Unpublished doctoral dissertation. Harvard Graduate School of Education. 1944.

dominions) within the British Commonwealth of Nations. Most important, we have not learned the history of continuous peaceful cooperation between the two countries, extending from the Rush-Bagot Agreement of 1817 right down to the present.

The narrow nationalistic nature of our present texts precludes not only adequate treatment of our peaceful relations with other nations, but also leads to the neglect of any mention of individual leaders in other countries in their relations with the United States. Referring once again to Canada, a representative list of the outstanding figures in Canadian history, as tentatively agreed upon by a group of Canadian teachers, includes the following names. How many American students will even recognize more than the first and the last ones, although the work of all of these men is distinctly relevant, in one way or another, to American history or culture?

Champlain	MacDonald	Banting
Mackenzie	Laurier	Leacock
Papineau	Laval	King
	Borden	

It does seem strange that we are so ill-informed concerning a neighbor so akin to us culturally, a neighbor that is one of our best customers (as we are one of her best customers) and a neighbor with whom we have been so long on such good terms.

One possible suggestion to help alleviate the narrow type of nationalism still suggested, more by the omissions than by the commissions of our textbook writers, is the inclusion of an approach which might be called the influence of the United States on democratic living in other countries and the contribution of other countries to the American way of life. The United States is not alone a powerful nation. More important today she is a powerful member of groups of nations, of the western hemisphere and of the world family of nations. If the student of American history is to understand the position of his country in the world today, he must understand America's position in these groups, and to understand that, he must also understand the position of the other nations which help to make up those groups. The teacher and the textbook writer must help the student to understand that the United States is not, and has never been, isolated.

With a genuine sensitiveness to the importance of sound objective knowledge of other countries and our relations with them as a basis upon which to build lasting understand-

ing and goodwill, the educator can contribute much toward creating the will to peace.

History is a race between catastrophe and education.

Relation of the Industrial Arts to the Social Studies in Elementary and Secondary Schools

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I

Educators have long realized that the old elementary school curriculum, adapted to a much less complex civilization, cannot serve the needs of our machine age.

During the pioneer period in our history, while a great nation was in the throes of creation, expanding amid hardship and struggle from the Atlantic to the Pacific, family life was a stern school. It was here that independent thinking and resourcefulness were developed in children.

In our day, since industry has passed from the handicraft stage to that of the machine and factory, the home no longer contains materials, tools, nor space for crafts and other creative activities. Nor is there that stimulus which comes from seeing adults at work and from realizing the need for such industry. Self-activity on the part of the child has been replaced by passive reception from the radio and cinema. The child does not even walk to school, but is carried by car or bus.

The result is that most of our children have been cheated out of their birthright—the right to learn about this physical world of ours first hand through their senses, by roaming through fields and woods, and by manipulating and constructing things on farms and in shops. This has also deprived them of that discipline and training in character which comes from acting cooperatively, each taking his or her share of responsibility while working with father and mother for the common good.

To meet this need a little “manual training”

was introduced in the elementary school with no other aim than to develop some skill. John Dewey, among others, almost half a century ago recognized that a far more drastic and fundamental change than a mere addition to the old curriculum was imperative. The result was “Progressive education” in a number of private schools. Only recently has this new curriculum been at least nominally incorporated into some of our public elementary schools. Briefly, we shall attempt to clarify the relationship which exists between the “industrial arts” and the social studies in this curriculum, the keynote of which is activities with integration.

The modern school realizes that it is our basic needs as human beings, namely, food, clothing, shelter, utensils, records and tools, that have been affected by industrialization. Because these things are a vital part of all our lives it is absolutely essential that the elementary school give the child the necessary knowledge concerning these things which will enable him to conserve his health, to practice economy, to insure and increase the beauty of his surroundings, to develop inner resources for recreation, and especially to promote the growth of a social conscience. These, and not skills which belong to the vocational school, are the main objectives of the teacher of industrial arts in the elementary school as so comprehensively summarized by Bonser and Mossman.¹

¹ F. G. Bonser and L. C. Mossman, *Industrial Arts for Elementary Schools* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1930) Introduction.

Because the things we all use daily are no longer made in the home or nearby, the school must provide the child, beginning in first grade, with habit-forming activities concerning food, clothing and shelter, as well as those related learnings, including a knowledge of legislation, which will give him a growing equipment with which to protect his health.

An ever-increasing avalanche of industrial arts products is flooding the market, each acclaimed as superior to all others. The child must be given actual experiences through which he learns to judge nutritional values in relation to cost, the quality and durability of the things he buys, and to know how to use or care for them, if he is to practice economy.

The profit motive in mass production has eliminated beauty in our surroundings. It can be regained only by the demands of the consumer. Good taste can be developed in a child only by constantly providing him with industrial arts activities which give him opportunities for judging of beauty, as he applies the laws of design to what he makes and selects.

Our machine age, which will continually increase our leisure time, makes it urgent that the schools develop recreational interests, appreciations and constructive creative activities as hobbies.

As citizens of a democracy, with power to choose our law makers through the ballot, we must take our stand towards problems of industry, not only within the nation but also towards international relationships arising out of our growing world industrialization and trade. The consequent and inevitable world interdependence has made a social conscience, widened to include all nations and races, the most desperate need of our times. Even people who would not dream of exploiting their helpers in their own homes remain complacently oblivious to the condition of workers outside the home who now produce the things they use. A sense of responsibility for the welfare of workers abroad as well as in our own nation can be built up in a child only through a growing knowledge of industry as it is today and an understanding of how it has come to be what it is, in other words, through the story of civilization, the work of mankind.

A study of food, clothing, shelter, utensils, records, and tools with their implications for

the child's own life necessitates a curriculum integrated around the social studies. To understand the production and distribution of any one of these products the child must not only go out into his immediate environment and beyond that to the ends of the earth, but he must also go down into the past whence he has received it. Therein lie the tremendous cultural potentialities, which are inherent in those industrial arts which are essential to human life and hence are universal. They make history.

Out of man's unceasing struggle to satisfy these vital needs, science has gradually grown. Out of his urge to perfect and beautify these products as he fashioned them with his two hands; out of his desire to express or relate his experiences in this struggle for existence, his arts, music, dance, and literature have grown. Out of the problems of human relationships arising from all this—the world's work in home, community, nation, and between nations—his social organization and moral life have emerged.

We might visualize the sum of human experience, on which the child stands—its heir—as a cone resting on its apex reaching down into prehistoric times—the transverse or horizontal cross sections of which represent the successive civilizations, each of which have contributed towards, and made possible the age above it.

The industrial arts pass through the whole cone as its longitudinal or vertical sections. They have been, are, and always will be the warp and the weft of the life of every civilization as well as the child's. They, together with the sciences and arts involved in them, continue to expand in abundance, specialization and complexity with a consequent growing interdependence from the apex of the early Stone Age and up, increasing at an incredible rate during the short period of our machine age.

The industrial arts are, in their various stages of growth, the common denominator of the human race and constitute the only ground on which the child can meet and understand other peoples and races, past and present, on the basis of a common experience. As such, they are the only logical flux of an integrated curriculum.

In the modern school, children in the pri-

mary department develop a growing consciousness of the meanings of their own immediate life in the home through cooperative play-activities. They make a doll's house or, later, a real play house; they furnish it, prepare and serve meals, etc. Here lies the teacher's opportunity to begin to give them some knowledge of hygiene, habits of orderliness, and cooperation. The children begin to become conscious of the interdependence of the members of the home.

When they arrange their doll houses on the floor to represent part of their own street or community, adding stores and public buildings (their first map), or help build a post office and play postmaster, they have begun to study geography and community civics. Through all their activities they are becoming increasingly aware of the interdependence of members of home and community by practicing it, cooperating for a common purpose.

In the intermediate grades they live the lives of primitive peoples whose simple handicrafts, in which our industry has its roots, are within the comprehension of the small child. A blanket over a table is a cave. They set up their poles for an Indian tepee, or build an African hut or an Eskimo igloo of snow. They live in the shelters of these people, prepare their food, wear their clothes, send their messages in picture writing or by talking drums, make their tools, traps, weapons and musical instruments, dance their dances and learn to know their legends and songs.

As in life, their activities or projects, and not the teachers' marks, give the children a need and hence an incentive for their studying, reading, and drills.

Pushing upwards through the cone of human experience, the children go on to study succeeding and increasingly complex civilizations, including those aspects of the industrial and fine arts and the physical and social sciences of each period which are of significance for their growth. Their activities are so planned that they will have an elementary knowledge of all subjects, limited only by their mental age and the wisdom of the teacher, when they leave the eighth grade. Thus is developed a nucleus based on first hand experiences for further study.

With perhaps the exception of the upper

grades, each period of civilization is always the "unit" for integration, lasting from a term to a whole year. It is a serious misunderstanding when a single industrial art as it has developed throughout the ages is made the "unit" in the lower grades as for example, shelter or tools or transportation, so frequently studied even as early as the second or third grade. For a child at that age to make or paint pictures of primitive boats, Egyptian, Phoenician, Greek, Roman, Viking and medieval ships as his unit is meaningless. Each one, from the dugout to the latest ocean liner, can have meaning only as an integral part of the life of the time which produced it, and should be studied by the young child together with that period. By going slowly, taking the whole of life or a transverse section of our cone, the child's understanding will grow with his study of each rising level of civilization. He will be able to comprehend the basic construction and mechanism of each industry and its relation to the social life at that time and thus recognize how each has grown out of what has gone before. Only in this way, can a sense of the onward flowing continuity of the river of life gradually be bred into his bones.

The story of civilization—is not this a large order for the elementary school? Does not the child get all of this in his high school courses when he is more mature? It is here that I believe we have committed one of our major sins of omission in elementary education. A high school or college course in language or literature, however excellent and necessary, can never give the background attained by living with good speech and literature from babyhood up, and the same is true of all other subjects. Knowledge, if it is to become part of oneself, as well as habits, both physical and mental, attitudes and appreciations, all that goes into the making of personality, that most precious thing of all, is the result of a long and slow growth. Otherwise it is only skin deep and is as quickly discarded as acquired.

God knows, the children whose education will end with the eighth grade need as much of such a historical background, both industrial and social, as well as training in character and independent thinking, as they can assimilate. This is necessary if they are not to become the victims of fanatical propaganda and false,

narrow-minded convictions born of ignorance.

This integrated elementary school curriculum with first hand experiences as its approach has grown, not only out of new needs arising from our changing age, but also out of a realization that teaching subject matter and the three R's in separate, unrelated compartments and out of textbooks only, ignores two essentials of the learning process. First, it disregards the fact that interest in, and hence retention of a subject or an event *increases in direct ratio to the number of relationships and associations, which are built up around it*. Secondly, it does not heed the principle that the impression an event makes is incomparably deeper and more lasting *if we ourselves have actively participated in it or have had a similar experience*. Listen to two housewives discuss the servant question, or two women who have undergone similar medical operations!

No longer does the term "industrial arts" in the elementary school mean the making of and decorating knickknacks, though this may be included at special occasions such as Christmas with design as the teacher's objective. It means making and using for class projects, centered around a study of the successive stages of civilization, those things which have epoch-making significance in the development of our present-day civilization. The student, whether child or adult, who has made an Assyrian clay tablet, a scroll, a piece of parchment from a sheep skin, a hand-sewed book, or who has cut raised letters out of a potato or from linoleum, pooled them with others made by the class, and has set the type and printed with them, has had experiences in common with an Assyrian, a Roman scribe, a medieval monk and Gutenberg with his epoch-making movable type.

Not only will a bygone age or the life of another race become real and vital to the child to the degree in which he has actually shared their life through such experiences, but it will also give him that knowledge of basic processes without which he cannot understand the industries of our own day and their growth. What a thrill it is for a child who has made a deckle and mold, shredded a piece of linen, and produced a tiny piece of paper himself when he visits a paper factory and discovers that the only difference is that many intricate

machines now do just what his hands did. So with other industries. He will realize with a vividness born of personal experiences that all our marvelous inventions have been made possible only by the toil and thought of untold billions throughout the ages and that the benefits derived from these therefore belong to mankind. In short, he will know that the true goal of the growth of industry is greater leisure for education, scientific research, the creative arts and their appreciation, and for friendly human intercourse, and not the accumulation of mammoth fortunes or the development of the arts of war and destruction.

He will emerge with a strong sense of our common humanity, an appreciation of what other nations and races have contributed to our own lives now and in the past. This will create in him a respect for their individuality. Upon the older child there will gradually dawn an ineradicable understanding that the growth of industry has been and will continue to be towards an increasing interdependence as the result of an ever-growing specialization and complexity. He will realize that as the very existence of a group of families in a primitive tribe depended on cooperation, so our industrial world-interdependence must imply either a world-cooperation or else, as with the primitive family, destruction.

But more than this, working together on their class projects the children grow, simultaneously with their knowledge, in habits of passing judgments, making choices and decisions, and assuming their part of the responsibility for the whole. In short, they learn how to organize and cooperate *voluntarily* for a common purpose, the democratic way of life, *by living it*, beginning in the first grade.

This is a far cry from letting children do anything they please, neglecting their three R's and going without discipline that ensues from hard, prescribed study. Integration with activities does not necessarily exclude drills where needed, but because the compulsion or motive for study has been shifted in the modern school from the dictates of the teacher and the fear of her marks to the dictates of life-situations which necessitate reading, writing and arithmetic, the children do far more of it than formerly. True discipline can only come from being given responsibility. The child

discovers that if he neglects to go to the library to find out what he has to know in order to carry out his part of the class project, the project will not succeed, be it the school newspaper, an assembly, or a play.

There are also hopeful signs here and there in the high school of a curriculum that is breaking away from the confinement of the four walls of the school room to meet the needs of today. In every high school there are overgrown and over-age boys and girls who sit day after day and year after year in their seats listless, inactive, cultivating habits of laziness. Ask one of them to go fishing with you or to sail a boat and he is alert, eager and energetic; or it may be baking, building a cabin, or dress-making that will awaken him or her.

When children have acquired a consciousness of the past and are mature enough to comprehend our more complex civilization, they may study any single phase of the industrial arts, universal to mankind, as it has developed throughout the ages. Such a "unit" would take in a longitudinal section of the cone of human experience. The teacher who, for example, actually goes fishing day after day with such a group of children who are not book-minded has an opportunity through a study of fish, fishing implements and boats from primitive to modern times, to give these children a great deal of elementary physics, biology, geography, and the history of our race beginning with the mollusk shells found in the kitchen middens of the Stone Age. Incidentally, while fishing, the teacher may learn something from the children as well. In the same way, any one of the industrial arts which are essential to human life may be made a living approach to any amount of culture. The boy who is taking a car apart is looking at a section of the unfinished film of an unfolding drama, going back to the time when man first discovered that he could lighten his burden by pushing it forward on a rolling log instead of on his back.

In the face of the tremendous disparity between the varied backgrounds of our school children, any standardization of the curriculum is senseless. Obviously it must vary just as widely as do the needs arising out of the home, the locality, and the previous school environment of the specific group. Today, when apprenticeship is a thing of the past, vocational

training is imperative in the high school for those who will not receive it later. The child's vocation in that case should be utilized as his approach to the arts and sciences both physical and social. It should be made the doorway through which his teachers of academic subjects lead him from his own life to the wider, global life of the past and present. When he recognizes the relationship of his vocation to the past and its bearing on the future as a link in the growth of mankind, his work will become significant and meaningful to him.

II

Such, in brief, is the trend of the modern school movement. And yet, though now generally accepted by educators, it is still only in a few isolated cases that such an integrated curriculum is actually carried out in our public schools.

This brings us inevitably to a discussion of our teacher-training institutions. How can we expect to make a fundamental change in the curriculum of the elementary and high schools without first making a corresponding change in the curriculum of the students who are training to teach there? If we look through the majority of catalogues of our teachers' colleges we find, with but few exceptions, that subject matter is taught in separate compartments, just as it was a half a century ago, with a few additional courses, the latest in orientation. Even where there has been an attempt at integration, it is often only partial.

Students in most teachers' colleges are expected to carry on activities in a course in "Industrial Arts for the Elementary School," which are typical of similar activities to be incorporated in an integrated curriculum for children. But there is hardly a day that the purpose of this course is not being frustrated because of a lack of that same integration in the students' own curriculum.

Here are a few examples: They are given an extensive course in hygiene; yet it is usually so organized in their curriculum that it is impossible to relate it to those very activities in their industrial arts course which have hygiene as their main objective. Again, study of cotton, part of a unit on "Clothing," and such activities that may be connected with it—picking seeds out of the cotton boll, making a miniature model of a primitive cotton gin, spinning

a thread on a spindle, visiting a cotton mill—cries out not only for geography and physics, but also for a study of the momentous part that the cotton industry has played in the history of our country, not to speak of the urgent need of its adaptation to present-day developments. A study of types of shelter from the tent of the nomad to the skyscraper of steel construction—the result of man's twofold adaptation to his physical environment and to the needs of the social structure of his time—demands a simultaneous study of geography, physical science and history. Yet these courses are taught in most teacher-training schools without any relation to each other whatsoever.

It is not an uncommon occurrence to hear a student-teacher remark to another that he "hates" history. What a preparation for teaching it! Recently a student dramatic society chose "Trojan Women" for their annual production. Because it was an extra-curricular activity the girls, as usual, had no time to do more than barely learn their lines. The teachers who sponsored it burned midnight oil making costumes and scenery. After the play these students knew little more about Greek life than before its production, and a valuable educational opportunity for the enjoyment of history had been lost. Incorporated in a planned, integrated curriculum and given time, such a play might have been used as an approach to a study lasting several months of that richest period of all ancient cultures to which our own democratic way of life owes so much. If actually produced by the students themselves, the making of costumes, properties and scenery in the industrial and fine arts departments would necessitate going to contemporary sources as reproductions of ancient Greek sculpture, pottery and architecture. An understanding of the text of the play would require a study of Greek history, philosophy and literature, with its lesson for our own day. The teachers of all of these subjects should cooperate in a "unit" on Greek civilization.

It may be argued that the student-teacher will acquire all the above mentioned subject matter in his various high school and college courses. True but because it is given to him piecemeal it is ineffective. He reads a few Greek legends in his "Childrens' Literature Class," hears an illustrated lecture on Greek

art in a study of art appreciation, and may touch upon its history in a third course. A year or two may elapse in between these courses. The same is true of other subjects. We ignore the fact that the life of a people and of an age is a *living organism* and that all phases of its life are organically interdependent and should be studied as one. Only by recognizing the relationships of the parts to each other and to the whole, do facts and events become significant. Only thus will they be retained.

Indeed, it is a common mistake of the opponents of the modern elementary school to attribute its frequent and evident shortcomings to its new curriculum instead of to the inadequate preparation of the teachers of that curriculum. Because their college curriculum has not been integrated, too many teachers lack the background of integration. As a result, any attempt to teach an integrated curriculum may do more harm than good.

College teachers everywhere continue to complain, as of old, that the twelve years spent in the elementary and high school have left little impression on most of the entering college freshmen. But is not any indictment of these schools simultaneously an indictment of the teacher-training institutions?² It is a vicious circle. To make up for their deficient knowledge, scatterbrained students in teachers' colleges are rushed from one class to another all without any relationship to each other—their one and only concern, to make a passing mark or better. It is almost as if their professors were bent on making it impossible for them to concentrate very long on anything. As an instructor of industrial arts in a teachers' college, it has been my experience that it is because of this, as well as their earlier training, that student-teachers so often find it difficult to grasp the meaning and implications of the integrated curriculum in spite of their many courses in education and their practice teaching of "units of work."

Even in so-called Progressive public schools assembly programs are often composed by the teacher and are learned by rote. They are not the spontaneous expression of the child,

² Admittedly, the enormous size of some public school classes make it impossible for even the best trained teacher to carry on the activities of an integrated curriculum.

growing out of his own experiences and his genuine desire to impart them and their related learnings to others. Repeatedly we find that children who have made models of windmills, under the direction of a student-teacher in a study of Dutch life, have not the slightest idea of what the wings are for. The pupils may have ground corn between two stones when they "played" Indians in the primary grades, but the teacher has made no connection between that former experience and the eventful step forward that mankind made when he harnessed the wind to do the work of his hands. That would be teaching physics and this is a lesson in geography! In an eighth grade some of the boys had made from blue prints in their woodwork class, a workable, little model of a canal lock suggested by their classroom teacher for a study of the Erie Canal in their history. This was as it should be, but neither the teacher nor the children—not even the boys who made it—had any comprehension, whatsoever, of how the canal lock worked. That would be physics and this was a lesson in history! Few children leave the elementary or high school without having made a block print, but in how many cases has its implications in the growth of our civilization been exploited?

Habit is stronger than theory. We are continuing to ingrain those very habits in our student-teachers which they need to break by not giving them an integrated curriculum. No wonder that when they teach, they revert to the way they have been taught ever since their first day in school.

Every once in a while, the faculty of teacher-training schools get together to discuss whether they may not ease up the students overburdened schedules and eliminate some of their subjects. They always end by admitting that all of them are indispensable. There is but one solution, namely, a curriculum, adapted to the adult mentality of the students in which all these subjects *with first hand experiences in the industrial arts as their approach* are integrated around the story of civilization. This is essential for teachers of children as well as for children.

In summary, our only hope for the future lies in the education of our children and that, in turn, is dependent on the education of their teachers. There is but one common aim for all

teachers, namely, to work together to solve the problem of how to pass on our heritage to their students so that each will realize his responsibility to do his part, however small, in building a better world. This must include better health, more economy in the production, distribution and use of the products of labor, greater beauty in these products, more education for increased leisure, and *above it all, and through it all, a greater development in human relationships*—a social conscience deepened and widened to include other nations and races. To understand as a reality the interdependence and unity of all life—is this not the one supreme need of our day?

We believe that those elementary schools, which are working out a curriculum, as roughly indicated in the first part of this article, are on the right road towards achieving this aim.

No teacher can give a child what she herself does not possess. We believe that a curriculum, built on similar lines, is indispensable for those beginners in teacher-training colleges who are still in need of subject matter and the vision to be derived from it. Hence, it is my hope that the faculty of all such colleges will open up their air-tight departments and, embarking on a grand, cooperative venture, will work out together an integrated curriculum, pooling all their resources during the freshman and sophomore years around a study of the successive stages of civilization. The industrial and fine arts departments would provide the students with actual experiences of the life of these civilizations. They would seek knowledge not for credits or to complete a schedule in a catalogue, but for the sake of its meaning for life. Such a curriculum will be constantly changing and improving as the faculty gains more experience and becomes more cognizant of the needs of the students. Difficult? Yes, and it will entail much study and hard work on the part of the teachers, but the joy they will experience as they grow, with their students, will far outweigh any growing pains.

They will forge ahead ever with a vision before them—a pillar of fire by night and a cloud by day—a vision of a truly democratic world. In such a world a brotherhood of free peoples, freed by education from the shackles of falsehood and greed—national as well as personal—are striving to eliminate war, waste

and want, by voluntarily substituting cooperation for competition in all relationships between its interdependent parts. In such a world each nation is cultivating its own garden,

whether small or large, to its fullest extent, bringing forth in freedom and in peace its distinctive flowering of whatever gifts it may have peculiar to its earth and to its people.

Revised Historical Viewpoints

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BENEVOLENT PULLMANISM

George Mortimer Pullman, reared in poverty, became wealthy through his dominance of the sleeping car industry which by 1893 served three fourths of the railroad mileage of the United States. When the growth of business necessitated expansion of production facilities he chose a site in Hyde Park near Chicago for his new factories. He decided also to build a model town to house the thousands of workers. Pullman felt that model housing conditions and a model environment would allay labor unrest and afford his corporation stability in labor relations. The post-Civil War period had witnessed much strife between labor and capital. Many craft unions, the National Labor Union, and the Noble Order of the Knights of Labor had been active champions to the annoyance of the capitalists.

George M. Pullman purchased a site of 4,000 acres near Chicago to meet production purposes and to secure labor tranquility. The company established gas, water and sewer facilities, and constructed streets, homes and public buildings. All buildings were of brick with stone trimmings and slate roofs. The monotony of the architecture was relieved only by the beauty of the parks, shrubbery and trees. In 1894 there were 1,800 tenements varying in size from two-room flats to luxurious three-story houses. The public buildings included the Florence Hotel, the Pullman School, the livery stables, the Casino, the Arcade which housed the Library, all the stores and offices, the market buildings, and the Green Stone Church, constructed of green serpentine rock. There was a Playground and Athletic Island for sports.

The houses were modern in every detail. Streets were macadamized. A company-owned nursery and its greenhouses maintained the

beauty of the lawns, streets and parks. A dairy farm, having 100 cows furnished milk, butter and cream. A company-operated truck farm disposed of all sewage. The crops raised on it supplied the town of Pullman and some Chicago markets yielding an eight per cent return. No hospital, cemetery, jail, orphanage or infirmary were included since use was made of those in the village of Hyde Park.

The population of the town fluctuated with the prosperity of the company. In 1893 it contained 12,500 people and in 1895, following the Panic of 1893 and subsequent depression, it had only 8,000. Most of the residents were foreign-born, chiefly Scandinavian, British, Dutch, German and Irish.

George Pullman managed his town of Pullman with rigid paternalism, having full control through the corporation over all the "public utilities." All town officials were appointed by the Pullman corporation. Members of the school board, though elective, were employees of the company and subject to Pullman's influence. The chief administrator was the town agent. Of these there were six from 1880 to 1907.

The fire department, library, hotel, theater and bank were operated by separate boards chosen by the corporation. Retail stores alone were the only ones not operated by the corporation. Hyde Park licensed peddlers were allowed to sell vegetables and dairy products, but were denied the conveniences of sheds and stands.

George Pullman also wielded considerable influence in the village of Hyde Park to which the town belonged politically. He maintained a majority sympathetic to his policies on the board of trustees and board of review. Pullman tax assessments and water rates were reduced to the lowest possible level and the

prerogatives of the town of Pullman were never seriously challenged. In 1889 Pullman unsuccessfully opposed the annexation of Hyde Park to Chicago without any noticeable change later in the prerogatives or administration of the town of Pullman.

Employees were expected to vote for the party or candidates supported by George Pullman. There was some coercion of employees, but there is no evidence that many were discharged for voting contrary to his wishes. Occasionally in national elections the Democrats carried the town in spite of his efforts on behalf of the Republican Party. On one occasion John P. Hopkins, paymaster of the shops, led a revolt against the political domination of the corporation. He was discharged and compelled to leave the town. Later as mayor of Chicago he showed little sympathy for the company in the great strike. The firm of Secord and Hopkins gave generously to the support of the strikers.

It is difficult to appraise fully and accurately the means by which George M. Pullman attempted to dominate the inhabitants. A weekly semi-official organ of the corporation, the *Pullman Journal*, exercised a subtle influence. Radical speakers were excluded by being denied the right to use the public halls. Caution was used in granting the use of the theater for lectures, and censorship was maintained over its plays. Tenants, according to the leases, were subject to removal on ten days notice, but such eviction was seldom instituted.

Residents were not permitted to own their own homes in Pullman, a fact which the United States Strike Commission of 1894 reported as causing embittered relationships during the great strike. Some workers owned homes in nearby towns but these were discriminated against when work was scarce. Prior to 1893 one-sixth of the workers owned homes outside. During the depression preference in jobs was shown to Pullman renters. In 1894 two-thirds of the employees were renters, while in 1893 one-half of the employees had been residents of Pullman.

The whole Pullman experiment was commercial. Gas was sold for \$2.25 per 1,000 cubic feet as compared with a charge in Chicago of \$1.25. Water costs were estimated to be excessive though the company denied the charge.

The library was open to those who paid an annual fee of three dollars, a policy according to George M. Pullman designed to give a "sense of ownership." The Library had over 8,000 volumes but never more than 250 members.

Rent was high, including charges for street, park and sewer expenses, which averaged from 20 to 25 per cent more than in Chicago and surrounding communities for similar accommodations, excluding, however, sanitary and aesthetic features. The company at first deducted the rent from wages but later was forbidden to do so by law. Then the employees were paid by two checks, one of which covered the exact amount of rent which it was expected was to be turned back directly to the company. Profits from rents fell short of the expected six per cent. However, the shabby frame cottages at the brickyards yielded 40 per cent on the investment according to the report of the United States Strike Commission.

Some paternalism existed in the policy regarding the use of dwellings. Alterations in the premises were forbidden without written permission. The tenant was supposed to pay for all repairs, a provision of the leases which was not enforced. Pigs and chickens were forbidden because of their offensive odor. Horses could only be kept in the livery stables. Calcinining, painting and mechanical work were forbidden without official consent. The company assumed the responsibility of keeping the front lawns mowed, sprinkled and free of refuse.

The Pullman Company, like other corporations of this period, gave no security to employees against the misfortunes of life. There was no benevolent paternalism here, since there was no provision for the care of orphans, paupers, or the unemployed. The latter when they could no longer pay rent were expected to depart. Medical aid was furnished to injured employees, but wages were not while one was disabled.

There was an adequate program for all recreational and social needs. There was one play a week during the winter months in addition to special concerts. The Pullman Band was of high quality, winning the Illinois State Championship in 1890. The Men's Society of Pullman enjoyed great prestige. The Athletic Association promoted numerous sports and major

events such as the annual spring games, professional regattas and the annual road race. In the latter as many as 400 cyclists would compete.

The people organized their own churches, holding services in quarters rented in the Arcade, the Casino and the Market Building. The Presbyterians only were able to rent the Green Stone Church once its annual rent was reduced from \$3,600 to \$1,200. The Catholics and Swedish Lutherans finally secured some Pullman property outside the town for their own churches. The religious groups became increasingly dissatisfied with town conditions, objecting particularly to high rentals and commercial treatment. John Waldron, a popular Catholic priest, attacked George M. Pullman as a capitalistic czar. He was forced to resign.

The model town was inspected by thousands of distinguished visitors including manufacturers, engineers and economists. It was imitated elsewhere, but only slightly. The Pullman Strike of 1894 destroyed whatever revolutionary effect the town was believed to exercise on industrialism.

The strike revealed many basic grievances underlying the apparent calm and contentment of the citizenry. Among these were political domination and the absence of democracy, rigid paternalistic controls over tenants, exorbitant rentals, excessive gas and water rates, and the refusal to permit home ownership. Pullman had no real interest in labor as human beings, slashing wages as business slumped since he, like other industrialist of the period, regarded labor as a commodity to be bought and sold. George M. Pullman was uncompromisingly opposed to labor unions which played but a small role in the model town prior to 1894.

Much unrest was caused by Pullman's rent policy during the Panic of 1893 and the ensuing depression. Though Pullman slashed wages he would not lower the rent, contending that there was no relation between them. Those dissatisfied with the rent policy could not, as Pullman declared, live elsewhere since he discriminated against non-renters. Many employees, owing to wage cuts, fell into arrears, the total sum reaching \$70,000 at the time of the strike in 1894. Eviction normally was not expedient or necessary, as numerous tenants when unemployed departed from the town.

The principal cause of the strike was a radical reduction of wages fostered by a depression in business conditions. The year ending July 31, 1893 showed profits of \$6,000,000 and the employment of 5500 men. With a slump in the fall, labor was forced to bear the loss averaging a 25 per cent reduction in wages with a loss of over \$60,000 in the seven and a half months prior to the strike. In the same period the manufacturing division bore a loss of \$52,000. The United States Strike Commission declared a fairer distribution would have been one-fourth for labor and the remainder for the company. Salaries of Pullman officials were left undisturbed by the drastic retrenchment policy.

In 1893 the corporation possessed assets of \$62,000,000 of which \$26,000,000 represented undivided profits. After the dividend of eight percent was paid in that year, a surplus of \$4,000,000 remained from the profits of that year. Despite losses in the construction department in 1894 the earnings of the corporation in that year were sufficient to warrant the regular eight per cent dividends which actually exceeded those of 1893 by \$300,000. Pullman explained to the government commission that he could not see the wisdom of utilizing profits which belonged to the shareholders for the purposes of paying higher wages than were justified by business conditions.

The strike was precipitated on May 11 when the company rejected the demands of 4,000 workers organized under the American Railway Union. These demands were: investigation of shop abuses, reduction of rents, and restoration of wages to the pre-depression level. One strike leader declared that prior to the strike, skilled mechanics received \$1.50 daily and the ordinary laborer \$1.30. Duane Doty, town agent, however estimated the average daily rate of pay at \$1.85, assuming the worker worked the full ten and three-fourths hours. (No judgment can be expressed properly on these wage levels in the absence of other data on wages elsewhere together with the cost of living and the purchasing power of the dollar). George M. Pullman refused all overtures by the strikers and others to arbitrate. Mark Hanna remarked that Pullman was a fool not to do so. As is well known the strike was crushed by the use of troops and the injunctions issued by the courts. (Vide Allan Nevins,

Grover Cleveland—A Study in Courage, Chapter 33; undoubtedly an excellent account of the Pullman Strike.¹) After 12 weeks of idleness the Pullman shops reopened in August, 1894, on the terms of the company: the low wage scale, the same rentals, and the surrender of membership in the American Railway Union.

The strikers were in a demoralized condition and finally appealed to Governor John P. Altgeld for aid. He inspected conditions in the town and told Pullman that it was ironic that men who had worked in the shops for more than ten years were compelled to apply for relief two weeks after work had stopped. Pullman declined relief, whereupon Altgeld issued a proclamation appealing to the people of Illinois for aid. The public and labor unions gave a gratifying amount of support.

The Pullman experiment of a model labor town did not long survive this disastrous labor upheaval. George Pullman died on October 19, 1897, at the age of 66, removing the influence which might have resisted the forces bent on destroying the experiment. A court order

finally destroyed the unique political entity. In August, 1894, Maurice T. Moloney, attorney general of Illinois, brought suit against the corporation for the dissolution of the town. On October 24, 1898, the State Supreme Court condemned paternalism and declared the establishment and operation of a model town to be in violation of the corporate privileges of the Pullman charter. The dissolution of the experiment was ordered within five years, but upon petition it was extended five years more. Lake Vista was destroyed, and the Playground and Athletic Island were appropriated for industrial uses. The Arcade Theater was closed and the sewage farm abandoned. The Library survived under different support and management. In 1907 the public buildings and homes were sold, the terms being easy and preferences were shown to the inhabitants. On July 9, 1907 the town became a part of Chicago.

Paternalism instead of actually promoting better relations actually provided the laborers with new grievances. Improved living conditions and a favorable environment were off-set by the lack of freedom of action and self-expression. The strike of 1894 convinced the laborer that the corporation had no genuine interest in his fate.²

¹ Some chief sources cited by Lindsey: George M. Pullman, *The Strike at Pullman*, (Chicago, 1894); William Carwardine, *The Pullman Strike*, (Chicago, 1894), pro-strikers. United States Strike Commission Report, Senate Executive Document, No. 7, 53 Cong., 3 session (Washington, 1895); Harry Barnard, *Eagle Forgotten: The Life of John Peter Altgeld* (Indianapolis, 1938).

² Almont Lindsey, "Paternalism and the Pullman Strike," *American Historical Review*, XLIV (January, 1939), 272-289.

"Artificial-Jaw" History

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"Why are Americans so ignorant of the history of their own country?" Off and on, for several years, a wordy battle has raged about this question. The question never is "Are Americans ignorant of the history of their own country?"—That seems to be taken for granted, even though the point is probably debatable. No; practically everything that has been spoken or written on the matter starts with the assumption that we are "so ignorant."

Some of the discussions of the question have appeared under rather startling titles: "How to Avoid Teaching American History," and "Why Don't They Teach American History?"

To the anxious parent it must indeed seem that a devilish plot to sabotage and destroy a once-cherished member of the curricular family has just now been unearthed.

The controversy, then, centers about possible causes of this reputed American ignorance of American history. Fresh culprits are continually being dragged forth. In the main, however, analysis discloses that suspicion generally falls on one of these three: (1) We aren't teaching enough American history; (2) A species of "escapism" has ruined the American history courses we do have; and (3) The failure is due to bad teaching.

Number (1) is, of course, pure "poppycock." No one at all familiar with the schools would even make the charge. American history is recognized today as the heart and center of all the work in the social sciences in both the graded and the high schools. Probably more children are studying American history this year than ever before. The materials at hand, in the form of texts, library helps, maps, and charts are without doubt of higher attractiveness and merit than at any earlier period. I am equally certain that the quality of the teaching during these stimulating war years would match that of any earlier day. Hence, in answer to the query of that widely-discussed article, "Why Don't They Teach American History?" the reply is, "*We do!*"

The second reason advanced for our failures in American history I have called "escapism." It is a highly interesting theory, and it will be necessary to go into it at some length a little farther on. Just now it is only necessary to note that, as in the case of Number (1), the more remote the critic is from the day-by-day routine of the schools, the more feverishly does he press this reason for failure.

We come now to Number (3): Bad teaching. I, for one, am disposed to agree that this charge is true. But when I agree to that I am not closing the debate. I am opening it. We have come to another "why?" *Why* is the teaching of American history bad? Here is an angle to this long-drawn-out debate which I have not seen stressed. It needs all the emphasis it can get. I have waited a long time for some teacher—some one on the firing line—to probe toward the bottom of this vital matter. But in vain. So now I essay the role of prober.

I make this assertion: The character of American history now required to be taught in the schools, and as now administered in most of them, presents both learner and teacher with an almost hopeless situation. The teaching is bad—because the teacher is asked to do the next-to-impossible.

I can best launch myself on this theme by telling of an experience I had recently. A few weeks ago I was repeatedly called to my home telephone to answer a question put to me with great earnestness by neighbors and acquaintances. As I walked along the streets of my

suburb, or rode a bus and street car to my school, I was more than once confronted with the same question. The corridors of the school itself offered no escape. Former students of mine, and other students who happened to know me, charged at me with the now-familiar question. Hour by hour my face took on a deeper red. My stuttered explanations grew feebler. I could not answer that question. I, the head of the social science department of a great high school, did not know the answer to this direct, simple little history question—*What President had an artificial jaw?*

As the days passed I began to feel somewhat better. I discovered that not one of the twenty-seven teachers in my department could answer that question either! I almost began to have fun out of the situation. "What!" I would roar at these people with their master's degrees in history, "Do you mean to stand there and confess that you don't even know what President had an artificial jaw? Why don't you resign—or move over to the mathematics department?"

The furor had, of course, arisen out of some radio quiz program. At the moment when public interest in American history had reached the frenzied pitch I have described, the question was, no doubt, in the sixty-four dollar class. Other similar queries buzzed through the ether. The department was under a perfect barrage of questions it couldn't answer. While we held no departmental meetings in the emergency, many a corridor-conference swirled about the subject. It seemed likely that, if the thing kept up, our prestige in the community would be seriously undermined. Here were 150,000 people in feverish attendance upon a veritable Radio School of American History. They turned for help to their supposed experts—and no help came!

Make no mistake about it. People of considerable intelligence thought this artificial-jaw question a proper question for the schools and their teachers. And this brings us to the cause of most of the confused thinking about American history in our schools. We—teachers, supervisors, boards of education, experts and laymen—haven't the slightest degree of unanimity on what it is we want done in the history class. Is evidence of sound instruction there signalized by the student's ability to recall

what President had an artificial jaw? Or what statesman weighed under 100 pounds? Or what Johnny Appleseed's real name was? You say: "Well, of course not!" But there's no doubt whatever that a lot of us want a type of history taught that is perilously close to the artificial-jaw variety in spirit and nature.

Before I forget it, let me turn back at this stage and give my not-too-fervent "amen" to points raised by the proponents of the theory of "escapism." These people seem convinced that certain educational leaders of a generation ago revolted at the prospect of continuing teaching to young Americans so barren a subject as American history. Deliberately these wretches set to work to destroy it. They are known to the advocates of this theory as "social scientists."

There was such a revolt. It was against the type of historical instruction, and against the character of the goals set up, which we have been discussing. And can you wonder that there was? Or that certain of these "social scientists," made desperate by what they saw, ran amok? In the place of feeding historical knowledge to the learner—bitter, factual pill by pill, the pill bottle was dispensed with altogether. The time-honored materials of the history classroom, well mixed with ingredients supposedly much more palatable, and well watered down into the bargain, now appeared as an appetizing dish from which the learner was to help himself.

One thing was accomplished. The atmosphere of the new "social science" classroom was transformed. All was sweetness and light and joyous activity. The only drawback of the new course was that the product of its training was more prone even than the graduate of the old fashioned history class to let George III write the Declaration of Independence, or to sanction "T.R.'s" participation in the War of 1812.

The critics of this so-called "social science" development had a point. No doubt of it. But the biggest coon was not in the tree up which they barked.

What do we have then? Revolt and counter-revolution in the history classroom and all in a sing'e generation. Is our present confusion of purpose and of means at all to be wondered at? And now back to my earlier assertion.

When American history, as a school subject, edged its way into the curriculum a century ago, it got off to an exceedingly bad start. For reasons that we do not have space to go into here, it was made into a purely memoriter subject. One learned the names of eleven Spanish explorers and five English colonizers. One memorized what was in each of the three charters granted to the Virginia colony. One went to class prepared to tell how many men were killed, wounded and missing in the Battle of Monmouth. When makers of the early courses of study got to the date 1789 their work from there on organized itself. There were the presidential administrations. Five events in the presidency of James Madison; four happenings while Grover Cleveland occupied the White House. There you were!

An exaggeration? Thumb through the pages of a fifty-year-old text in American history. Leaf through a sheaf of sets of examination questions given by county and state superintendents of schools to aspirants to teaching positions in the schools of 1900. Heaven help the applicant with a faulty memory! Name three of this and four of that; list six of these and seven of those. It was as mechanical as counting eggs into baskets.

My recent painful experience prompted me, as you have already noted, to call history of this general character "artificial-jaw" history. From the first we have had it with us. To this day we have not been able to rid the history classroom of its baneful influence.

In the course of the debate over what is wrong in the American history class, much has been made of the lack of historical knowledge displayed by service men, college freshmen, and other groups subjected to new-type examinations in this branch of learning. It does seem shocking that college freshmen are found unaware that Abraham Lincoln was President during the War between North and South, or even of the fact that the Homestead Act was passed in 1862. I would be shocked, along with the others, except for the fact that I am a teacher of American history. Items like these, multiplied down through the years, have rendered me practically shock-proof.

What fundamental cause lies back of this ignorance of the *facts* of American history? I have tried to state what I think it is *not*.

What it is, as I see it, is this: The grammar-grade youngster, the high school student somewhat more emphatically, the college freshman still more emphatically, does not learn the facts of American history because he does not want to. None of them has any quarrel with American history as such. But none of them likes *classroom* American history. The textbook with which each is encumbered and the methods employed during the recitation bore the modern youth.

The curious fact is that most of these same students, when they were passing through the lower grades, liked American history. Or is it curious? In those grades the course was informally applied, and the texts and other books in use had an easy, running, narrative style. Then, in the upper grades of the grammar school the study of American history becomes formal. The text, in its effort to get everything in, becomes prosy, stiff, didactic. The teacher catches the spirit of the text. Soon the atmosphere of the classroom loses its last vestige of the spontaneity of earlier years. And as this new spirit grows, so does the ennui and boredom mount in each pupil.

What a tragedy! That segment of the curriculum devoted to the study of the history of this nation should, without question, be best loved and most cherished by America's children. Instead, it rates near the bottom in their esteem.

In passing, don't overlook this: The farther up through the schools the pupil progresses, the deadlier becomes the work of that assassin of interest—repetition. Having brought Columbus across the ocean four times, in the same three ships, from the same court of Ferdinand and Isabella, with the same signs of land appearing at the same stage in the journey, the student at last reaches the stage of open rebellion against assisting the great captain for a fifth time on his voyage of discovery.

Of course pupils could learn American history if they tried. They could learn its "true inwardness" and they could even pick up a vastly greater freightage of the fragmentary data of history upon which we have been insisting. They could do it all with the greatest of ease once their interested attention was focused on the subject. But as things stand, attempts to force the memorization of a list

of dates on the average high school junior are futile. You meet with a polite, stubborn refusal to do so. But let a new song-hit come out, and that same junior will know it verbatim, verses and chorus, in twenty-four hours.

If I am right, then the cause of most of our trouble is exposed to view. And our present problem is to win for the American history classroom the enthusiastic interest of American youth all the way through, from the grades to the university. I suggested earlier that past failures could not be laid at the door of the classroom teachers. Given the present confusion of purpose, the present benumbing influence of a bad past, the present demands of courses of study, and you must admit that the classroom teacher is doing as well as can be expected. We must go back of the teacher to the makers of courses of study, to over-ambitious supervisors, to the buyers of textbooks in American history if we really want to get to the seat of our present troubles. I believe the following are common-sense suggestions:

(1) Those responsible for what is attempted in the American history classroom from year to year must make up their minds to toss overboard a good half of the subject matter we now make a feint at teaching. As with a bad housekeeper, our historical attic is full of a jumble of odds and ends now more or less useless, but clung to because they were handed down to us from grandmother's time. A few moves usually may be counted on to reduce the contents of the housekeeper's attic; in the field of American history we are continually on the move—but precious little of our attic miscellany reaches the junkman or the garbage heap.

The alert youngster in our schools today cannot be made interested in the hop-step-jump courses we confront him with in the history class. We try to do far too much as to the number of facts presented—and hence far too little with the significance of them. Because courses of study suggest encyclopedic accomplishment, the texts are encyclopedic in character. And the situation will grow worse unless a sensible solution is found, for history was never made faster. If we keep in the texts all that we now have and add the new, what is going to happen? One thing is already happening: the texts are growing more and more voluminous. They have to grow. There

is more to say about more things. There is an alternative. As the story of America lengthens the authors of history texts might cut down on the number of lines devoted to each topic. In other words, say less and less about more and more! But then the text grows still more encyclopedic.

Pity the unborn generations of students of American history. They seem doomed to carry to the history classroom either a text the size of an unabridged dictionary or a set of encyclopedias.

No! it's overboard ruthlessly with many, many of the facts, the names, the dates, the incidents that many of us have held dear too long.

(2) Having performed the major operation I have suggested what next? What we have left, I think, must be made to center about a few great events, a few significant trends and movements. Let me illustrate from the colonial period. What element of that period can have greater meaning for us today and tomorrow than the slow fusion of many nationalities on the edge of the American wilderness; or the development here of new concepts of personal freedom and representative government? Yet these vital matters, if treated at all, are scattered about hit-or-miss in the text and in the day-to-day class routine, generally interlarded with such trivialities as the Pequot War and the Claiborne affair. Lackadaisical attitudes in the history classroom are as chargeable to this fragmentation of vital historical materials as to any other single factor.

Our teacher, now with only a fraction of the factual materials to deal with, and this organized and integrated, will attack her task with a new enthusiasm. She will now have time to drive home the truly great lessons of our national story. And the keen-minded modern youngsters will like the change. They can at last embark on a joyous journey that has been denied a few generations of learners because, like many a foolish traveler, they were forced to drag along with them so much excess baggage.

(3) Those who build the courses of study in history must assess the damaging effects of overlapping and repetition, and take steps to avoid the overdoses which now afflict the schools. These evils are the results of pure

carelessness. There is a George Washington—playing soldiers, and surveying land—for the fifth grader. There is another Washington—the leader who just wouldn't be beaten—for the seventh grader. There is still another for the high school senior. There has been no excuse whatever for our foolish attempts to present the same Washington—with the story often in the same phraseology—at each of these levels. If those who plan the courses will insist that the first procedure be followed, and the latter sternly eschewed, one of the chief reasons for student dislike for his history class will be eliminated.

(4) A closely allied matter is this: We have never come to anything like agreement on what can profitably be taught at the successive grade levels, and what can not. Because we have not, practically every topic to be found in the high school text is also found in the text used by the seventh grader. This is ridiculous of course. But the author and the publisher of the text for the seventh grader will go right on putting everything into that book until those who buy the books stop yelling to high heaven when, on examination of a prospective text for thirteen-year-old children, they fail to find a discussion of Jackson's quarrel with the Second United States Bank, the *Crédit Mobilier*, and "Sixteen to One."

Worse than this, the style of the discussion represented, and the language used, is practically identical oftener than not. I once tried this experiment. I gleaned excerpts from a number of senior high school texts and seventh grade texts on half a dozen topics treated in all of them. I handed sets of these excerpts to several groups of intelligent adults with the direction to place those from the seventh grade text in one pile and those from the senior high school text in another. These people simply could not tell the difference.

The teachers of American history are, I believe, ready and eager to teach this simpler, saner story of America, shorn as it would be of a mass of extraneous detail, and integrated as it would be in broad and meaningful units. The authors of texts can with no difficulty write the type of text I have suggested, and because they now have room for it, can give their story a flowing narrative style comparable to that found in the best literature. Publishers are, I

am sure, willing enough to meet the demands of a new day. Indeed, many of them have gone far in this direction. Some of their newer texts in history exhibit a desire to present fewer facts, and bigger ones, woven into patterns that have lasting significance; to discriminate more closely between the teachable, at varying levels, and the unteachable; to show a greater adaptability, in the matter of language, in presenting their story to pupils of varying abilities.

The tardiness with which we move toward a few common-sense and vital reforms in the history classroom, let me repeat, is not chargeable in the main to the teachers, the authors, or the publishers. It lies at the door of those who make the courses of study and purchase the texts and the other materials of instruction.

Until these people shake themselves free from the clutch of that dead hand reaching down from a bad past we can look for scant progress.

The change will come of course. And with American history placed on a qualitative rather than a quantitative basis, the atmosphere of the history classroom will change. I am convinced that the youth of America can and will be made to thrill as never before with a sense of pride at the majesty and beauty of the land he calls his home. They will catch a new significance in those past events in the nation's story whose cumulative force now pushes America toward the great destiny opening before it.

Very likely these young students of American history will still not know that the Homestead Act was passed in 1862. But will it greatly matter?

Insurance, a Matter of National Defense

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Is insurance purely selfish, or is it a matter of national interest and defense? The answer to this question is important, for insurance is the second greatest industry in the United States today, a business that concerns about 63,000,000 people.¹ We would hate to think that it was merely selfish, and that the benefits were of little or no value to the nation as a whole.

Let us consider the problem: Is it purely selfish? If it were, the person insured and those closely related to him would be the only ones to derive benefits from the payments. The advantages would have to come in disregard of, or at the expense of other members of society. In its very nature insurance contradicts such one-sided benefit, for it is a social device operating on principles of pooling.² One person does not receive all the benefits, but instead all the

members, by pooling their money in the form of payments, come to the aid of an individual participant in case of need. In doing this, insurance comes closer to charity than it does to selfishness.

Of course, showing that insurance is not selfish does not establish the fact that it helps the nation. To see that it does, we must investigate to find how money received from payments is used, how it can aid society. One of the first considerations would be the actual payments after a loss has been incurred. Beyond that, it would be necessary to consider how insurance companies help the country through their use of surplus funds, whether through actual spendings or investments.

Payments on policies can be looked upon as a matter of national defense. Through them poverty within the country is greatly decreased. Between 1930 and 1939, one insurance company alone, the Metropolitan Company, paid out \$5,000,000,000 to policyholders,³ an amount which must have saved many from suffering

¹ John Magee, *General Insurance*, (Chicago, Business Publications, Inc., 1936), p. 28.

² C. A. Kulp, *Casualty Insurance*, (New York: The Ronald Press 1928), p. 10.

³ C. A. Kulp, *Casualty Insurance*, (New York: The Ronald Press 1928), p. 10.

impoverishment. By preventing poverty the insurance companies can help the government both in upholding the quality of citizens and in a pecuniary way.

Pauperism is a social disease, radical and contagious. It exposes society as a whole to danger of violence and discontent, as was certainly evidenced in the French Revolution, when thousands died at the hands of the enraged, impoverished crowd. By keeping pauperism at a minimum, insurance is making citizens more content, and as a result is making them slower at accepting extreme revolutionary ideas merely because a new government might offer some remote chance of advancement.

A more mercenary, but no less important result is the saving of government money. A study conducted by the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company in 1930 revealed that the cost of maintaining the 5.4 per cent of the entire population 65 or over, not allowing more than \$300 a year per person, amounted to \$46.29 per each employed individual.⁴ Can one imagine how much higher this amount would soar if insurance did not provide millions each year in making many older people self-sufficient?

Besides preventing national weakening, insurance works on in a positive way in bringing about national betterment through its research work and the consequent application of its findings. Probably one of the best examples of better standards as a result of insurance companies' work is the advancement in prevention of fires. The reports of the companies in establishing rates embody invaluable recommendations for improvement besides regular findings.⁵ Knowledge acquired by the companies in such ways has equipped them to be leaders in preventive efforts. They have the additional advantage of being able to dangle a rather tempting bait, a lowered rate for those who follow recommendations in reducing hazards. In certain cases they have succeeded in reducing fires almost 70 per cent, at no extra cost to the per-

sons involved, for although sometimes it was necessary for the insured to buy additional apparatus and make general corrections, the cost of improvement was paid for in savings on premiums for fire insurance in one year.⁶ The insurers are now seeking to maintain laboratories, such as one in Chicago to study fire resisting materials and devices, new apparatus, etc.⁷

A rather similar situation exists in prevention of factory hazards, particularly in the case of boiler works. In trying to prevent explosions, the insurance companies send inspectors who make periodic examinations of safety devices, make pressure tests, inspect for scale, weak or rusting tubes. This procedure in itself has been so helpful that many boiler works take out insurance just for the inspections.⁸ The insurance companies have supplemented this work by supporting the National Safety Council and by seeking to secure favorable legislation.⁹

Quite often in their attempts to benefit themselves the insurance companies have helped society, as is probably best exemplified by their work in health protection. Since everything the health insurance does in preserving health reduces the amount it must pay out on its policies, as might be expected, the companies have attempted to do much, and have succeeded. They have rendered policyholders periodic health examinations, which bring to light incipient diseases, diseases which have often been cured because they were discovered in time. They have popularized the idea of visiting nurse service, and even by 1920 the Metropolitan Company had brought about 10,000,000 such visits.¹⁰ It is almost difficult to enumerate the influence of the companies in publishing health material, with almost 215 million pamphlets alone to their credit, including some on first aid, personal hygiene, sanitation, and disease prevention.¹¹ If we consider all the work

⁴ Louis Dublin, *A Family of Thirty Million*, (New York: Metropolitan Life Insurance Company, 1943), p. 20.

⁵ John Magee, *Life Insurance*, (Chicago: Richard D. Irwin, Inc., 1942), p. 25.

⁶ Albert Mowbray, *Insurance, Its Theory and Practice in the United States*, (New York: The McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1937), p. 40.

⁷ L. Zartman, *Personal Insurance*, (New Haven: Yale University Press, 1937), p. 22.

⁸ Albert Mowbray, *Insurance, Its Theory and Practice in the United States*, p. 35.

⁹ John Magee, *General Insurance*, p. 21.

¹⁰ Albert Mowbray, *Insurance, Its Theory and Practice*, p. 41.

¹¹ John Magee, *Life Insurance*, p. 33.

¹² *Ibid.*, p. 33 ff.

done by insurance companies in prevention of hazards in all these lines, fire, factory, and health, we are almost forced to admit that it is a powerful factor in national betterment.

The prevention of poverty and the beneficial effects of its spending in preventive measures are probably more readily recognized as benefits than are the actual investments on the part of the companies. These investments, however, are so important that they should not be overlooked. The huge surplus funds of insurance companies have generally been available to the nation in cases of need.

The mention of government need has probably brought the question to mind: "What are insurance companies doing now for our government in its present crisis?" Of its 36 billion dollars in assets, insurance has 30 per cent concentrated in United States government bonds.¹² Of all new investments 75 per cent are made in the government.¹³ The Metropolitan Insurance Company alone has increased its holdings by over \$550,000,000, bringing its total to over \$1,700,000,000.¹⁴ The help has not been limited to this war alone, for in the last war, too, insurance companies helped our government and the Canadian government.

During the agricultural failure, the insurance companies' funds helped out. In 1917, in order to aid the agricultural part of the war expansion program, they loaned money to farmers,

until by 1927, just ten years later, over \$2,000,000,000 had been invested in farms.¹⁵

One of their contributions to city dwellers has been to relieve housing shortages by creating projects in various parts of the country. A \$7,000,000 housing project at Long Island houses 2,125 families; one in Parkchester houses an additional 36,000 persons; others in San Francisco, Los Angeles, and Alexandria are doing their part.¹⁶ Both national and private agencies consider the work of insurance in this field as very important in the face of the present period of war emergency.¹⁷

In a way, the helpful hand of insurance companies has been outstretched. Their investments have aided in the building of railroads, libraries, and schools. They have made possible the erection of dams, hydro-electric plants, and numerous public utilities, including gas companies, electric companies, transit, and public service corporations.¹⁸ There is really no individual who does not owe them some substantial credit for his daily comforts and conveniences.¹⁹

Insurance does contribute to national defense. It achieves this by preventing poverty, by promoting health protection, by preventing hazards, and in providing capital when and where it is needed. In short its great accomplishments help to make America what it is.

¹² *Ibid.*, p. 355.

¹³ Louis Dublin, *A Family of Thirty Million*, p. 94.

¹⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 21.

¹⁵ Joseph MacLean, *Life Insurance*, (New York: The McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1936), p. 280.

¹⁶ John Magee, *General Insurance*, p. 20.

Teaching Local and State Government

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The duty of the schools is the preparation of their pupils to participate in life. One of the greatest phases of life in a democratic community is participation in the government of that community. During the school year of 1944-1945 Nether Providence Township High

School had an unusual opportunity to emphasize that fact. The Township Commissioners asked the school to undertake, for the first time in the area, a survey of the government and history of the community, with the students gathering and marshalling the data. The fact

that the survey thus undertaken has brought home to the students themselves not only their potentialities, but their future responsibilities is easily apparent. This is not a regularly scheduled part of the program, but is an example of how the social studies program must and can often change to good advantage.

No worth-while government can exist unless its citizens are educated and interested in that government. The school stands or falls upon its ability to produce enlightened democratic citizens. By a very broad interpretation the school may be called a factory of education. It has only one product: worthy citizens. No other product will or can be accepted. If the student body (the raw material) does not emerge from the assembly line a body of individuals (worthy citizens) with one common belief (the worth of a democratic system) the factory needs to be scrapped.

In order for the school to produce its great product, an enlightened citizenry, it must use many means. It is most important to notice that the material is not junked if it does not suit. The school must produce the same product with varying material. Therefore the means employed by the factory of education are, and must be varied with the materials at hand. An industrial plant knows what it has at hand and changes its system. The school cannot always be sure until the school year is begun, and therefore cannot always change its system beforehand. It then falls to the workers (the teachers) to use various means to their ends as they have the various materials.

One general system that is of vital importance is personal contact. This is an attempt to subvert the bane of the public school: vicariousness. As much as possible the teacher gathers the material taught into the school or goes to it. Nether Providence Township is indeed fortunate that it is able to get in close contact with its township secretary, the election polls, and the county seat. It is unfortunate that it is an unwieldy group of communities loosely hung together within a political boundary. The program of personal contacts is strong where the former can be used and weak where the latter interferes. As much as possible the teachers use the officers of the township and the various seats of government in the school

program. The township secretary gave a very interesting lecture to the student body as the opening of the local survey program. However, the usual system employed is that of the survey itself. The class, after proper preparation, undertakes a survey study of the local community government and the officers in it. The fact that the survey can become quite embarrassing to the officers cannot be ignored. More about that later.

The survey is a search for all the information available on offices, duties, salaries, fees, terms of office, method of selection, and zones of responsibility. These are not listed in order of importance. The reasons behind what at times verges upon impertinent questions are best rolled into one: understanding. When the pupils are through with their discussions of offices, duties, methods of selection, and zones of responsibility, they better understand the reasons for laws, their enforcement, and their interpretation. It is a fact that the pupils cannot easily file the offices under the terms legislative, executive, and judicial. Who can? But they know more about the local government than most of their parents do, or rather did before the survey, for those parents have learned much from the survey themselves if they are interested in their children.

One of the finest phases of the survey is the personal interview stage. In this part of the study the pupils, usually in groups no larger than five pupils, seek and conduct interviews with the various local officers. This is where the loose construction of the township most interferes. The pupils meet with the officers at prearranged places, usually their homes, and ask the questions mentioned above. The chief values here are the experiences the children have, the searching the official gives his own administration of trust, and the understanding that is fostered between a future citizen and a present official. This is the best place to encourage interest in the government on the part of the students. This is also where the embarrassing appears. Some officials dislike telling a mere child about the "private" fact of income from office. That is pure snobbishness and the children often resent it.

The proper preparation for the survey is a study of local government in a text with class

discussion of offices and duties. This need not go on very long as there is a limit to the value of classroom study without the outside contacts. After proper preparation the interview period takes place. After the interview period mock government operation is used in the classroom. Here again an unwieldy township interferes with the next step. What should take place next is an actual observation of a series of "government in action." The class should observe a commissioners' meeting, a school-board meeting, a board-of-health meeting, an election, a criminal hearing, a civil hearing, and anything else that can be arranged. The lack of cohesiveness makes it impossible to do most of these. The best that is done is a trip to the polls. The comparatively short distance to both the polling places makes it possible for classes to go there en masse during school hours on election day. Fine cooperation by the election board results in a program of lecture, a tour of inspection, and finally the actual working of unused machines. That study really went over big. After that, a short rediscussion of the studied phase of government takes place.

An incident of applied "government in action" that took place during the school year of 1943-1944 occurred in the ninth grade civics class. The students, studying juvenile delinquency, became interested in solving the problem in their own township. They sought the recreation committee of the Parent-Teachers Association and worked with them and other interested parents in finding a suitable recreation hall to be equipped and placed at the disposal of the youth of the township for that purpose. At first the suggestion was made that the school facilities be made available to them, but the natural antipathy toward that institution by juvenile delinquents made them feel it would be inhibiting and would not provide the proper atmosphere for the people they were most interested in helping. As the civics class and P. T. A. worked on the problem they found that an insurmountable financial problem confronted them. After some time the project was abandoned. However, the values the students gained by their efforts cannot be measured and can only be estimated. They learned the value of community cooperation, organization, and community contacts.

After the possibilities of study in township government have become exhausted the class turns to the county government. The systems employed may be similar; book study, survey, interview, observation, and rediscussion; but the opportunity for personal contact is not so great. In a few isolated cases interviews may take place but in such a populated and busy county the chances of interviews and observation are limited, to say the least. The best that can be done is a trip or trips to the County Court House. The procedure is the same whenever possible. Mock trials are held after proper discussion. These build upon the previous hearings. Then the class goes to Media, the county seat, to observe criminal court in session. While there they are usually given a fine discussion of court procedure, usually aimed at juvenile delinquency. After the return to school, discussion is carried on in a new light.

Whenever possible field trips are made to other institutions of the county, such as jails, libraries, police offices, and the various court house offices. The best method at these institutions and offices is for some employee there to give the lecture and answer questions. The teacher tries to stay in the background. That gives the class richer experiences and breaks down the wall of unfamiliarity to the greatest extent.

The hardest and least satisfactory of the phases of government to teach is that least familiar and farthest away, the state government at Harrisburg. For this the textbook is the beginning; the use of a mock legislature is important. But since Congress and the presidential cabinet are much better publicized and a mock Congress often works much better, especially in a presidential election year, often little else is done. We must use the best materials at hand.

Election time is the best time to teach elections. During the past election, parties were set up along the lines of the students' interests; Democratic, Republican, and Socialist. The parties formed committees under the direction of a teacher. Then the committees handled the campaigns. They used handbills, party workers, speeches, debates, and wound up with a forum discussion. Election machinery was set up in the form of homeroom units, ballots were

dittoed, and local election boards handled the balloting in each room. The results need not be discussed. The trip to the polls followed and benefited by the previous elections at the school.

The theme of the teaching of government in Nether Providence Township High School lies

in trying to find and utilize a life-like situation. The nearer the pupil comes to it and the better he analyzes it, the better he will be as a citizen. While we will not guarantee that the product will be the best, we are sure that it will be better than that without the personal contact—the real situation.

Visual and Other Aids

MAURICE P. HUNT

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On the assumption that each year many new readers of *THE SOCIAL STUDIES* will have had little experience in the use of audio-visual aids, we are devoting this issue largely to basic information.

MOTION PICTURES

Teachers who plan to make use of motion pictures as well as other audio-visual aids, will profit from reading some general instructional book on equipment, types of aids available, and utilization techniques. One such book is the *Audio-Visual Handbook* by Ellsworth C. Dent (published by the Society for Visual Education, Inc., 100 East Ohio Street, Chicago 11, price \$1.00). A great deal of useful information can be gleaned from the professional magazines. *Educational Screen* is a magazine devoted to audio-visual aids in education. It is published monthly except July and August and costs \$2.00 a year (address: The Educational Screen, 64 East Lake Street, Chicago). Another magazine is *Film World*, published by Film World, 6060 Sunset Blvd., Hollywood 28, California, which costs \$3.00 a year.

Various other professional magazines have audio-visual departments, or publish frequent articles on the use of teaching aids. *The Nation's Schools* (address: 919 N. Michigan, Chicago 11) has a regular audio-visual department, as does *Social Education* (address: 101 Sixteenth St., N.W., Washington 6).

"What films are available and where can I get them?" will be one of the first questions asked by the teacher planning to use films for the first time. The titles of many good teaching films can be found in the professional magazines. One can also get titles from distributors'

catalogs and can also ask distributors to send news releases concerning new films as they become available.

One of the best means of finding out what films are available is to consult a film directory which classifies titles by subject and provides all necessary data concerning distributors, price, and specific film content. There are a number of these available, among which are:

1. *Wilson Educational Film Guide*. (address: The H. W. Wilson Company, 950 University Avenue, New York City). In addition to the annual cloth-bound edition, monthly supplements are sent to subscribers except in summer. Catalog and supplements cost \$3.00 annually.
2. *1000 and One* (address: The Educational Screen, 64 East Lake Street, Chicago 1). Price \$1.00. Revised annually.
3. *United Nations Film Catalog* (address: The United Nations Information Office, 610 Fifth Avenue, New York 20). Free.
4. *The Other American Republics in Films* (address: Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs, 444 Madison Avenue, New York 22). Free.
5. *16 mm. Sound Films of Britain at War* (address: Film Division, British Information Service, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20). When writing ask for any other film information they may have. Free.

In many cases the best source of films will be the state film library. Virtually every state has a free lending library for the use of teachers, operated either by the state department of education or the state university. Many

state libraries suffer from a lack of funds, however, which means a poor selection of films, poor service, or both. Where school funds are available it is often more satisfactory to supplement the state library's services by securing films from other distributors. There are hundreds of organizations from which films may be borrowed or rented. Most of these are commercial firms, but there are other organizations which supply films on a non-profit basis. The names of commercial distributors can be secured from advertisements in professional magazines.

Among the non-commercial distributors we might mention:

1. New York University Film Library (71 Washington Square South, New York 12). All NYU films are carefully selected, and their library includes almost all the better social studies films. Write for their catalog.
2. YMCA Motion Picture Bureau (19 South La Salle Street, Chicago 3). The YMCA also maintains film libraries in New York, San Francisco, and Dallas. Write for free catalog.
3. New Tools for Learning (280 Madison Avenue, New York 16). This organization distributes films, recordings, and pamphlets. Their catalog lists a series of current social problems and suggests appropriate teaching aids for each. Suggested aids consist primarily of NYU films and recordings, Public Affairs Pamphlets, and University of Chicago Round Table Transcripts.

With the exception of films from the free state lending libraries, most films from both commercial and non-commercial distributors carry a rental charge. This charge is seldom more than \$1.00 a reel for one day's use. Some films (particularly U. S. Government releases) carry a service charge of from 50 cents to \$1.00. On the other hand there are a large number of free films, particularly those produced by corporations or trade associations for publicity or public relations purposes, for which one has to pay only transportation charges.

RECORDINGS AND RADIO PROGRAMS

Recordings are rapidly gaining in popularity as a teaching aid. Their low cost in comparison

with motion picture films make it possible for the school of moderate means to develop its own recording library. They also enable the teacher to bring valuable radio programs into the classroom—programs which were originally missed by students and which can be enjoyed only in recorded form.

Recordings are of two general types: ordinary phonograph records and radio transcriptions. Transcriptions differ from phonograph records in that they are usually sixteen inches in diameter and rotate at $33\frac{1}{3}$ revolutions per minute. A fifteen-minute program can be recorded on one side of a transcription. A special record player is required for transcriptions, although many of the newer players are adjustable to accommodate either transcriptions or ordinary phonograph records.

It seems probable that many state film libraries will organize recording libraries in the near future. At present there are several commercial distributors of recordings, including the radio networks. In addition, each of the following organizations has recordings to lend or sell:

1. Recordings Division, New York University Film Library, Washington Square, New York 3. Free catalog.
2. Script and Transcription Exchange, Federal Radio Committee, U. S. Office of Education, Federal Security Agency, Washington 25, D. C. Free descriptive literature.
3. New Tools for Learning (previously mentioned in this article).

A useful source of general information about educational recordings is *Recordings for School Use* by J. Robert Miles (World Book Company, 2126 Prairie Avenue, Chicago, price \$1.25). This directory presents much useful information about the use and care of recordings and the purchase and use of equipment, and also lists in classified form and gives a quality rating for virtually all educational recordings available in 1942. Now somewhat outdated, it is likely the directory will be revised in a year or so. A list of commercial recording distributors is given in the back of this book to whom teachers can write for catalogs.

Teachers can receive, upon request, the Service Bulletin of the Federal Radio Education Committee (address given above). This

monthly bulletin contains news items concerning late developments in the field of radio education and educational recordings. The FREC also publishes a monthly listing of educational radio programs entitled *Radio Programs for School Listening*.

The *Journal of the AER* is a monthly periodical dealing with the use of educational broadcasts and recordings. The Journal is the organ of the Association for Education by Radio, 228 N. LaSalle St., Room 701, Chicago 1. The *Journal* is sent free to members of the organization, dues of which are \$2.00 annually.

Advance listings of educational programs may be secured from the National Broadcasting Company (address: "This is the National Broadcasting Company," Room 217, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20) and from the Columbia Broadcasting System (address: 485 Madison Avenue, New York City). These listings are free to teachers.

SLIDES AND FILMSTRIPS

Kodachrome slides are displacing lantern slides to a certain extent, although the latter

remain more useful for certain purposes. Because of their diminutive size, kodachromes can not be used in old-style lanterns. Some new projectors will handle both kodachromes and the larger slides, however, as well as filmstrips.

Filmstrips are taking their place in popularity alongside motion pictures and slides. Filmstrips are sections of 35 mm. film containing series of photographs or diagrams with appropriate printed titles and explanation. They may be turned slowly through a projector with as much time devoted to individual pictures as desired.

For general information about the use of slides and filmstrips, one of the best inexpensive sources is the *Audio-Visual Handbook* by Ellsworth C. Dent, referred to at the beginning of this article. Frequent articles on this subject also appear in the professional magazines.

Slides and filmstrips may be purchased from a large number of sources. Slides ordinarily cost from fifty cents up, and filmstrips somewhat more. Most state lending libraries now have slide and filmstrip divisions where these aids may be borrowed without charge.

News and Comment

LEONARD B. IRWIN

Principal, High School, Haddon Heights, New Jersey

COLLEGE ENTRANCE REQUIREMENTS

How much longer can our colleges continue to maintain and justify their rigid subject-matter requirements for entrance? This is a question frequently asked by public school educators; it is the basis of a timely article in *The School Review* for June, by J. Paul Leonard of Stanford University. Mr. Leonard points out a number of fallacies in the traditional attitude of the college toward the secondary school.

In the first place, there is the practice whereby a group of colleges prepare an accreditation list of high schools in their area, based

upon performance of college freshmen. This presupposes without warrant that a college freshman's failure is the fault of the preparatory school, not of the college. As Mr. Leonard says: "If a freshman student fails in college when he has done successful work in the secondary school, the college is obligated to assume major responsibility for such failure." Yet few colleges will accept that responsibility. This is so, even though it is evident that the colleges are exercising a preponderant influence over the program of the secondary school—a sort of dead hand—and thus are actually responsible in a measure for the type of pupils our high schools turn out.

By their rigid requirements of specific subject matter, colleges fix the curriculum of most high schools, not only for pupils going to college, but for those who are not. When we remember that the majority of American high

¹ With regret we announce the resignation of Dr. Morris Wolf as editor of this department because of ill health. Dr. Wolf's work in this connection extended over a period of nine years. We welcome as his successor, Dr. Leonard B. Irwin, who is well known as an educator and author. (Ed.)

schools have enrollments of less than 150, it is easy to see that when a program has been set up embodying all the courses required for college entrance, few facilities are left in the small school for non-academic students. In order that, in a given year, perhaps three of the 150 pupils of a school can be admitted to college, the other 147 must study French, or Latin, or plane geometry, instead of agriculture, shorthand, general mathematics, or home economics, which will be of direct use to them.

As Mr. Leonard points out, it has been clearly shown by such experiments as the Eight-Year Study of the PEA that the best criteria of success in college are character and native ability, as recorded by all-round achievement in high school regardless of the subject matter taken or its form of presentation. It would seem reasonable, therefore, for the colleges to cooperate with the secondary schools in producing an over-all educational program which will fit potential leaders to take their places in the community, without penalizing the majority of young people for whom the secondary school must be the terminus of formal education. Much more could be done in our public schools for this latter group were it not for the confining grip of college entrance requirements.

THE PROBLEM OF THE GERMANS

So many million words have been written on the subject that it seems everyone must be aware that it may be more difficult to deal wisely with a defeated foe than to beat him in the first place. Yet a great deal more is being written because there is still much loose thinking about the subject. There are still those who believe that the Germans will gladly take their place among the peace-loving nations if given the chance. It is interesting to note that there are far fewer advocates of the brotherly treatment for the Japanese; perhaps we are less willing to admit the possibility of innate evil among members of the white race. But a great many people recognize the danger of relaxing, now that the war is won—especially of going soft with Germany.

This danger has produced two excellent articles in the *Saturday Review of Literature* during the summer. In the July 28 issue, John F. Wharton's article discusses the implications of Lord Vansittart's book, *Bones of Con-*

tion; in the August 11 number, Lewis Mumford has an interesting article on the German apologists and the German record. Both of them should be read by anyone inclined to feel that the Germans were simply misled or over-powered by Hitler.

Mr. Wharton summarizes Lord Vansittart's thesis that the great majority of Germans, for over a century, have grown up with a passionate belief in pan-Germanism—so deeply imbedded that they will gladly follow any leader who can show them how to attain it by any means. As a result, while the rest of the world has moved gradually in the direction of world cooperation, the Germans have intentionally gone the other way at every opportunity, and will do so again as long as pan-Germanism remains their driving incentive. Mr. Wharton holds that a people who have such an attitude must be regarded inevitably as criminals against world society, and that their treatment now becomes a large-scale problem in penology. It is a matter to be dealt with on a pragmatic basis. Eighty million criminals cannot be executed or incarcerated. To isolate them would only perpetuate and intensify their criminal cosmology; nor can they be given a suspended sentence, for the risk is too great. The only solution is that which progressive penologists advocate for ordinary criminals. They must be kept under careful surveillance while they are gradually trained to understand the point-of-view required for living peacefully with others. They must be given the chance to assume responsibility, for otherwise there will never be any way of knowing whether the re-education is effective. When the world is satisfied that the old cosmology has been destroyed, then and only then should controls and occupation be removed.

Lewis Mumford is another who has little patience with the "soft peace" party. He agrees with, and quotes Thomas Mann, who recently said that "there are *not* two Germanys, a good one and a bad one, but only one, whose best turned into evil through devilish cunning." Mr. Mumford's article is in particular directed against a number of recent writers whose books seek to maintain the belief that the mass of Germans are peace-loving but have been over-powered by the evil minority. Among these writers are a number of anti-Nazi refu-

gees, such as Max Jordan, Paul Hagen, Gerhart Seger, Siegfried Marck and Max Seydewitz. As Mr. Mumford says: these men "present a picture of Germany whose acceptance by us would perpetuate the illusions that allowed the Germans to wage their second campaign of conquest and would enable them to gather strength for a third." We can easily be misled by them, for it would be reasonable to assume that victims of Naziism would scarcely be prejudiced in Germany's favor. Even anti-Nazis, raised in the pan-Germanic atmosphere, seem unable to show a sense of German guilt or any need for a thorough and lasting alteration in the German people.

TEACHING PUPILS TO THINK

A timely and challenging article by Marjorie S. Watts in the April number of *The Clearing House* should be read with profit by any educator. It focuses attention on the question: Why doesn't the education we give our children carry over as an aid in helping them solve their own personal relationship problems? Every teacher knows that in most cases there seems to be little such carry-over. We teach our pupils to type, to write grammatically, to calculate, to read intelligently (perhaps), but we do not teach them to think clearly, especially where emotional problems are involved. Ethical and moral issues, problems of family maladjustment, relative values—what do the schools give a child which will help him to solve these things sanely?

It is Miss Watts' thesis that young people should be permitted to discuss and solve personal and social problems as a regular class procedure. The role of the teacher should be to stimulate and regulate the discussion, but never to dictate solutions. The problems chosen for discussion may be actual ones submitted by the pupils, or theoretical ones of general application; often they may take the form of "What should a person do in this situation?" The emphasis should be on the use of logic and sound reasoning rather than emotion and prejudice. It is a procedure particularly well adapted to use in either English or social studies classes. What it may cost in time taken from more formal learning should be well compensated for by the valuable experience of group discussion and cooperative training in thinking clearly. For surely if this ability is

not gained in youth it will never come with age, for maturity tends merely to solidify the attitudes and weaknesses previously existing.

PROGRESSIVE EDUCATION

Just as the division between Fundamentalists and Modernists has split the Protestant world into two camps, so the conflict between progressivism and traditionalism has divided the ranks of educators. Moreover, the cleavage appears to be no nearer mending in the latter case than in the former. The arguments for one educational theory or the other constantly appear in current periodicals, and reach no common conclusion. One of the more stimulating and important statements of progressive principles is found in *The Educational Forum* for March, written by Professor William H. Kilpatrick. He presents six ethical principles for guiding the educative process. In them he holds that the emphasis on subject matter must give way to the building of personality, through providing situations where the child will learn and grow through feeling the need to meet these situations. He believes that instead of providing the child with a curriculum which he must follow or courses of study he must pass, the child should participate in the planning of his learning activities. In this way he will gain the incentive to work and will have valuable experience in making decisions and acting on them. The work of the class will derive from the actual interests of pupils, under guidance from the teacher.

Dr. Kilpatrick's article is an excellent summary of the basic theories of the progressive school. Probably a large majority of teachers would hesitate to quarrel with his general principles as ideal goals, but many of them will feel that under such limiting factors as time, space, cost and the formal requirements of industry and colleges, they must remain ideals to a considerable extent.

THE MEANING OF FREE ENTERPRISE

Dr. A. R. Mead of the University of Florida contributes a series of searching questions on this subject in the March issue of *The Educational Forum*. Every social studies teacher is aware of the deep and intricate problems of our economic system, though perhaps few have succeeded in analyzing them or reaching conclusions personally satisfactory.

We have been aware for the past dozen years that apparently there is a deep gulf between the social welfare theories of the New Deal and the philosophy of "free enterprise," the so-called American way. There is a large and varied body of literature, advertising and other forms of pressure constantly urging us to return to free enterprise. Yet it is extremely difficult for the average American to understand any longer what free enterprise means.

Does free enterprise mean, as it clearly did some years ago, the freedom of business men to combine their resources to exploit natural advantages, raise prices, limit production, and hold down wages and costs? Or does it mean the freedom of workers to combine to set the price and conditions of labor, and to compel other workers to accept union domination? Does it mean the right of worker, employer and entrepreneur to sell their goods and services in the best market with a minimum of government regulation, or does it mean a freedom to do this limited by whatever laws appear to be in the general welfare?

Free enterprise unquestionably means each of these things to particular individuals and groups; but what does it mean to the majority of people who talk of it? The term is in danger of becoming a meaningless catch-phrase, to be used for political purposes and emotional appeal. Let those groups who are spending large sums of money to promote "free enterprise" state clearly and specifically what they mean by it, so that the people may know what they can expect from it. Dr. Mead's article presents the dilemma vividly, and points out that under any system of truly free enterprise, the quality of education would have to become more democratic, encouraging initiative and creative ability.

THE G. I. METHODS OF EDUCATION

We have heard much about the possible effects of service training techniques on future public education. A great deal has been written about the virtues of the "G. I. Way" of teaching, with the implication that it has shown our common schools to be wasteful and inefficient. Opponents of the public schools (and there are many of these) have leaped forward, happy to point out that for years the taxpayers have been squandering their money in sup-

porting inept educational theories that have produced less than the service schools, directed by practical army men, in a fraction of the time. The fallacious reasoning involved in these charges has, nevertheless, convinced many people, including many service men. The results may do great harm to the real interests of education. In an excellent article in the *May School Review*, W. A. Cram shows clearly the flaws in the logic. The success of the G. I. way of teaching, far from weakening the public school's record, merely strengthens it. For, as Mr. Cram points out, the service schools are simply doing what any public school administrator would like, but never has been allowed to do.

Consider four fundamental factors of a learning situation: the learner, the teacher, motivation and equipment. The public schools must accept everyone who applies; the service training courses are open only to those who have passed rigid qualifying courses. The public school must work with the average teacher, at a small salary; the service schools have offered much higher salaries to command the services of the very best civilian teachers. The public school must train its pupils for all of life, and for uncertain goals that seem nebulous and far distant; the G. I. student studies a specific field, and is well aware that his mastery of it in a few months may save his own life and that of others. The public school teacher must usually work with meager and out-moded equipment, because of restricted budgets; the G. I. instructor has unlimited resources of films, slides, texts, models, apparatus and other materials. With these advantages, the G. I. way may certainly be superior, but it is a superiority of degree rather than of kind—the kind of superiority which the wealthy private school has over the small country high school.

Mr. Cram also points out two other advantages possessed by the service school which social pressure denies to the public school. One is a complete freedom of choice in forming the curriculum unhampered by public opinion, intellectual snobbism, tradition or college requirements. The other is the freedom to drop ruthlessly any student who does not measure up to whatever high standards the authorities wish to set.

The good features of the G. I. way are those which our schools have long advocated and, given the opportunity, would certainly practice. The other features, efficient and necessary for war as they undoubtedly are, are too undemocratic and costly ever to be accepted by the American public.

An interesting and amusing bit of reporting on one phase of army teaching was written by John Bartlow Martin for the August number of *Harper's Magazine*. It is entitled "Today We Take Up Your Ally, Russia," and gives a play-by-play account of one session of an Army orientation course. Teachers who read it will be inclined to feel that, no matter how successful technical service training courses may be, discussion and lecture courses on current problem in the Army have advanced little if at all beyond the public school techniques.

EDUCATION IN THE BRITISH ISLES

American educators, as well as all other believers in practical democracy, should be deeply interested and heartened by the impending educational reforms in the United Kingdom. In all three divisions—England and Wales, Scotland, and Northern Ireland—a program of democratic schooling is being adopted which, considering the basic obstacles, is likely to be as remarkable as anything ever produced in this country. It forms the subject of an article in *The Educational Forum* for May, by H. C. Dent, editor of the *Educational Supplement* of the *London Times*.

Mr. Dent provides a very concise and intelligent summary of the program, which many Americans will be surprised to find is more progressive than is to be found in many of our states. In general, the plan calls for compulsory attendance at school for all children to the ages of 15 or 16, and at least part-time education to 18; school administration on a broader basis than exists here, where local control is refined and sub-divided almost to the vanishing point; nursery schools and adult classes; very extensive free medical service for schools; and special types of schooling for those with special needs.

The problem of religious education, frequently vexing enough in many sections of the United States, has been particularly serious in Great Britain, where the majority of schools have been under denominational control for

centuries. It is doubly interesting, therefore, to see that under the new program the tax-supported schools of Great Britain will be required to give non-denominational religious instruction. Whether this procedure will satisfy those parents whose religious beliefs are strongly sectarian remains to be seen. The decision to give religious instruction in tax-supported schools is not, of course, as significant in Britain as it would be here, where the separation of Church and State has been carried to a much further extent.

As in projects of educational reform everywhere, Great Britain will have several perennial problems to solve. In that of finance, she has the advantage of national control and support, which American education lacks. On the other hand, the nature of the curriculum to be taught presents especially thorny problems in a country whose higher education is so strongly dominated by two great, independent and conservative universities, and where general education for the masses has had a comparatively brief history. The success of the British educational reforms will be of importance to Americans as well. We can learn from their experience. Their success will hearten the believers in democracy, for, as Mr. Dent says, when the giant of ignorance is conquered, "all the other giants which afflict democracy—want, squalor, fear—can be overpowered."

RICH ORE FOR THE HISTORIAN

The leading article in the March issue of *The Mississippi Valley Historical Review* is one that should excite and delight every real student and teacher of American history. There must be a great many who have a deep-seated love of historical research; who cherish the pleasure of tracking down elusive and forgotten material in old newspapers, documents and manuscripts; who feel that if they only had the time, means and a suitable subject, they could become shining figures in American historiography. Many a classroom teacher with a hidden ambition to emulate Sparks and McMaster, and many a young graduate student seeking fame and position through his scholarship, are undoubtedly discouraged by the thought that nothing worthwhile remains to be written. Let them now take courage. For in 1943 the Mississippi Valley Historical Asso-

ciation appointed a committee "to propose and to formulate in detail a series of projects in American history and culture."

The committee's report is that referred to at the beginning of this notice; it is a gold-mine of suggestions. The committee holds that, to be suitable and valuable for historical investigation, a subject must have pertinence for our times. History must present the past so candidly and sensibly that men may draw true opinions about it to use in the present. The committee also believes that there is a great need for books dealing comprehensively with a single period of American history. We have excellent political, social, economic, military or diplomatic histories of specific periods, but remarkably few balanced and thorough accounts synthesizing all these phases of our life at a given time. Of course this is the most difficult type of history to write successfully, but the recognized need for it should serve as a standing challenge to earnest students.

For those, however, whose goal is less ambitious, the committee offers a great multitude and variety of suggestions. Among them are such subjects as: biographies of agricultural leaders; the effects of soil erosion on our development; the influence of religion on American ideals and concepts; oil as a factor in diplomacy; modern forms of transportation, such as the electric railway and motor bus; railroad land-grant policies; the water law of the Great Plains; the logging and lumbering industries; and a survey of such homely

western institutions as the carnival, the medicine show, and the fruit tree agent. The committee's pleasant presentation of these and many others should stimulate many dormant researchers to undertake that book they have always meant to write.

KNOWING SCHOOL LAW

An editorial in the May issue of *The Clearing House*, by Daniel R. Hodgdon, makes a clear point of a matter which should be of concern to all teachers and administrators. It is probably true that teachers as a group know less about the school laws of their state than do the members of any other professional group about the laws which peculiarly concern them. Perhaps this is another example of the scholar residing in his ivory tower. In any case, it is indefensible and is often expensive ignorance. As Mr. Hodgdon shows by examples, there are wide-spread misconceptions about the rights and responsibilities of teachers and principals, and these occasionally result in damaging law suits. Ignorance of the law is especially true of migratory teachers who have taught in several states whose school laws may vary in important respects. Mr. Hodgdon's suggestion that schools of education should devote more attention to the principles of proper conduct in handling pupils is well taken. Such information might replace to good advantage some of the highly theoretical and abstract material to which teachers in training are too often subjected.

Book Reviews and Book Notes

Edited by IRA KREIDER

Abington High School, Abington, Pennsylvania

War Through the Ages. By Lynn Montross. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1944. Pp. 941. \$5.00.

Thousands of volumes and millions of words have been written about the history of warfare. Lynn Montross here attempts to tell the whole story of war in a single volume. Its 300,000 words, over a hundred illustrations, charts, tables, and bibliography, represent a tremendous amount of work. The wonder is not that there are a few inconsistencies, omissions, and

minor errors, but that the volume is so complete, accurate, and readable. This is by no means a superficial volume. It can be equally valuable for reference or for general reading.

The two central themes or theses of this volume should prove particularly interesting to history teachers and to students of contemporary affairs. Mr. Montross constantly demonstrates, without actually saying it, that tactics and grand strategy—even the weapons of war—have always been determined by politi-

cal, economic, and social conditions. This leads to many interesting speculations and observations. Secondly, the author points out that "psychological warfare" is not an invention of Hitler, but that wars and battles have always been decided as much by moral factors as by the weight of arms.

While some readers will bemoan the space given to twentieth century wars, there are few generals, battles, or campaigns, which are omitted. This is a surprisingly successful execution of a difficult assignment. Interestingly written, essentially accurate, it deserves wide recognition.

RALPH ADAMS BROWN

United States Coast Guard
Groton, Connecticut.

The Completion of Independence, 1790-1830.

By John Allen Krout and Dixon Ryan Fox.
New York: The Macmillan Company,
1944. Pp. xxiii, 487. \$4.00.

The Completion of Independence, 1790-1830 by John Allen Krout and Dixon Ryan Fox successfully completes the twelve-volume series, known as the "History of American Life." As in the preceding volumes the authors give an intimate picture of life as it was lived during the period. This leads them into an analysis of many non-political forces, such as the progress of architecture, the development of science, the evolution of the professions, and the influence of urban growth. All of these are of real significance and the careful way in which they are presented gives an enriched picture of the progress of the nation. The names of Webster, Clay, Jackson, and Calhoun appear, but along with them the importance of Latrobe, Bulfinch, Silliman, Maclure, Audubon, Stuart, and Barton Stone, in architecture, science, painting, and religion, is emphasized.

The period under discussion is one in which the nation made its first conscious effort to establish a cultural independence similar to the political independence which had been secured at the end of the eighteenth century. This is an important story which has a tendency to be neglected because of the normal emphasis placed on the sectional-national struggle of the period.

It should be noted that Dr. Fox, one of the editors of this notable series of histories, is co-

author of this book. His recent death deprives the historical profession of one of its distinguished members.

This volume, like its predecessors, has greatly added to our knowledge of the social and cultural life of the nation. It is scholarly, interesting, and significant. Like its predecessors it will be very useful for reference purposes in the schools.

WALTER H. MOHR

The George School

George School, Pennsylvania

American Chronicle, An Autobiography. By Ray Stannard Baker. New York: Charles Scribners' Sons, 1945. \$3.50.

In presenting the story of his life, Mr. Baker has written an autobiography which will probably take a place beside those of Franklin, Henry Adams, and Lincoln Steffens in the front rank of American biography. *American Chronicle* is written by a skillful reporter. It is the life story of a man who has sighted many horizons and gone beyond them, yet still likes best his Massachusetts hillside. It is the autobiography of a man whose name is indissolubly linked in history with that of Woodrow Wilson and his fight for a better world. The characterizations of groups, movements, and events are surpassed only by the descriptions of the multitude of important persons Mr. Baker has known.

Mr. Baker became a newspaper reporter in Chicago in the summer of 1892. That marks the start of this volume. Less than two years later he was the first out-of-town reporter to go to Massillon, Ohio, to interview Jacob S. Coxey. He remained with Coxey's "army" until its dispersal in Washington. The Pullman strike gave him his first insight into certain social and economic ills and helped to mould his way of thinking. There followed his years of brilliant reporting for *McClure's Magazine*—"muckraking"—his association with *The American Magazine*, his "David Grayson" writing, his trips to Europe, his deep interest in the Progressive Movement, and, finally, his years of association with Woodrow Wilson.

Many readers will find the sketches of the author's colleagues and contemporaries the most fascinating parts of the volume. Professor Haeckel, Joel Chandler Harris, John Muir,

Guglielmo Marconi, T. R. Roosevelt, Carl Schurz, Ida Tarbell, Lincoln Steffens, William Allen White, Peter Dunne, "Bob" La Follette (and his wife), Lord Bryce, General Tasker Bliss, Secretary of State Lansing, Colonel House, Herbert Hoover, and President Harding—these are a few of the people Mr. Baker has known and measured.

The "David Grayson" books brought Mr. Baker his greatest popularity and afforded him, probably, his deepest pleasure. These essays owed much of their popularity to their author's personality and philosophy. "I had a theory about thinking," writes Mr. Baker, "that thought was like happiness, not to be had by direct assault. Thought was the by-product of an abundant, various, opulent life. The whole of a man's nature, not his mind alone, went into it. Thinking was not a part of life; it was all of life." Baker writes of himself: "I learned much from all of the men I followed—the greatest lesson of all being that I could depend on nothing not in my own soul."

There are warnings for the leaders of 1945—and the followers, also—to be found in shrewd observations of the 1920's. "The whole world at that time seemed to be disintegrating—like an apiary in which the bee colonies have begun to rob one another. Some of us began to wonder if organization had not become more important than any attempt at a perfect settlement." And again: "The plain fact was that the people were emotionally and intellectually exhausted by the war. They wanted to be let alone; they wanted to get back to work. They wanted what the nondescript President who followed Wilson aptly called 'normalcy'."

At one time Mr. Baker prepared an article on the clothing industry of New York City, and became acquainted with the horrible conditions in that industry and the efforts of the workers to improve their lot. When, after years of struggle and sacrifice, the workers had recreated an entire industry, Mr. Baker saw therein "the most remarkable exemplification of a true American and democratic approach to the solution of problems." "The reform had come finally, as all really great reforms must come, from within, from the men themselves."

As head of the Press Department of the Paris Peace Conference, Mr. Baker had an un-

usually good opportunity to judge the work and the workers. As official biographer of President Wilson, as well as the author of several volumes dealing with the Peace Conference, he is more familiar with much of the documentary source material than any other living man. Yet he writes of his account of those tremulous months: "I know well it is not the complete story; it is the record of one man who played a small part in great affairs. It is that one man's judgments at the moment of swiftly-moving events."

Yet few men will ever characterize the Big Four as vividly as does Mr. Baker in this one paragraph: Wilson "is the only great man here. Clemenceau is serious, but serious for smaller causes, immediate gains. Lloyd George is a poor third—who lives for the moment, is pleased with every new compromise, pledges reckless benefits for each present gain. Orlando is a southern Italian without depth or vision, playing little games of local politics while the world is afire."

Mr. Baker characterizes himself as a "follower" rather than a "leader." But he has been a highly intelligent and critical follower. He tells us that he was always "treasuring men who are all of a piece: possessed men, sure men, inwardly united, men who expend themselves fearlessly and utterly in some great cause." Such a man would be inevitably drawn to Woodrow Wilson. Mr. Baker has no illusions about Wilson's perfection—analyses of his faults and weaknesses are frequent. Such recognition makes more significant his near-worship of Wilson, and lends further realism to such a tribute as: "For he was that rarity, a leader whom a free man could follow without surrender. He did not ask for personal allegiance; he had extraordinarily little personal vanity; he wanted you to join him unselfishly in devotion to the vision he had."

Some readers, remembering our rejection of the League of Nations and its ultimate collapse, may be inclined to feel sorry for a man who devoted so many years of his life to following a rejected leader. They should not pity Mr. Baker. It is not tragic to have followed a defeated leader if, in defeat, that leader proved worthy of one's following. Furthermore, Mr. Baker knows that in the final analysis Woodrow Wilson did not fail. He marches

on—into the centuries—and privileged to march with him is Ray Stannard Baker.

RALPH ADAMS BROWN

United States Coast Guard
Groton, Connecticut

Democracy and Social Policy. By E. E. Walker, W. G. Beach and A. E. Adams. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1945. Pp. viii, 504 Illustrated. \$2.00.

To the searcher for a "traditional" type of problems textbook, *Democracy and Social Policy* would definitely be unsatisfactory, for the entire approach is unusual, although the unusualness is not evident on a casual examination. The promise of the authors in the Foreword has been satisfactorily fulfilled—a book for "average and above average" young people to enable them to get "about the business of developing leaders capable of symbolizing ideals and analyzing issues for their less alert fellows." The emphasis is not on facts to be learned but on constructive thinking.

The material covers the methods of efficient thinking and investigation. It presents a study of civil liberties, minorities, business and government, economic uncertainties, governmental policy, world organization, and education. Excellent historical perspective is given to offset any tendencies toward superficial attitudes. All sides of the problems are presented impartially and in enough detail to give the reader a sense of satisfactory acquaintance, but not in a manner to give the feeling that now he would "know all about it." Examples of this particularly understandable and refreshing treatment are those on judicial review, social security, and labor and agricultural difficulties. On each problem the various sides are presented definitely and as complete units, so that the reader has no difficulty in sorting the pros and cons. The sympathetic treatment of the problems of each social group leads to the realization of the interdependence of all and at the same time offers excellent opportunity for individual stocktaking.

Accompanying each chapter is a challenging group of thought questions and research problems that are practical and worthwhile. A short annotated bibliography on two reading levels for each problem invites further study. While not definitely suggested as an exercise,

the well-chosen statistical materials offer numerous opportunities for the construction of simple original graphs.

Although no claim is made that *Democracy and Social Policy* is a text on government, the pupil after a thorough study would have the essentials of government for practical, efficient citizenship. The plan of including definitions of many terms has been followed, but a short glossary of those not defined would help the lower average pupil who is not always willing to make the necessary trip to the dictionary. For the same reason the inclusion of some important and interesting information included in footnotes might well be included in the text.

A study of *Democracy and Social Policy* will give young people the ability to hold their own in discussion with adults; in fact, many adults may find reading it very profitable and possibly most illuminating. One is left with the wholesome impression that the United States is neither a land of confusion nor a Utopia, but rather that it is a wonderful challenge to the honest, public-spirited leader.

MARGARET STEINER

Senior Problems Instructor
Whittier Union High School
Whittier, California

Andrea Barbarigo: Merchant of Venice, 1418-1449. By Frederic C. Lane, Baltimore: Johns Hopkins Press, 1944. Pp. xiv, 214. \$2.25.

This is not a biography in the usual sense of the term. The author has not intended it to be such. The story of Andrea Barbarigo is not that of an important historical character from whom we are removing the cloak of obscurity for the first time. Rather, it is the second portion of the title that is the core of this biography: Andrea Barbarigo was a "merchant of Venice." He, with all of his experiences, approaches most closely to a "historical type"—a Mediterranean merchant of the late Middle Ages. Since he is a type, almost any other merchant's story might have been told, except that in very few cases are there so many extant records as in the case of Andrea Barbarigo.

Essentially this volume is an analysis of the economy of the Venetian merchant. Although Venice was living in a slow-moving,

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sailing-ship type of business world, she was a world power; she found many factors involved in her success. Dr. Lane proceeds to introduce us to the interrelated way in which institutions, customs and movements were making for economic and political prestige for a maritime community of fifteenth century Europe.

In the first chapter he describes just how wealth, family background, social relationships, individual enterprise and civic institutions interacted in enabling a person to establish himself in the economic order of Venice. These factors are seen at work in the fortunes and misfortunes of the Barbarigo family.

The second chapter is a study of the relationships between the organized community and the individual entrepreneur. What protection did the Venetian Senate provide for the merchants of that Adriatic city-state? In return, what responsibilities to the city-state did the merchant have? What liberties were Venetian merchants granted in other states of the commercial world? The experiences of Andrea Barbarigo give, in particular terms, the answers to those questions.

The third and final chapter is titled "Business Associates and Opportunities." Wherever the city-state kept its hands off the merchant, the merchant felt the pressure of his fellow merchants. It often became desirable to organize mercantile companies, to borrow money, to collaborate for protection and to take stock in related enterprises. Having a degree of business liberty, merchants found it desirable (and often necessary) to enter into sharp competition for ships, markets, supplies, routes and prices. The "associates and opportunities" of Barbarigo represent, in this study, a detailed picture of one aspect of the kind of world in which the Venetian merchant did his business.

Dr. Lane recognizes the difficulty in determining a "type" in history. However, the records to which he had access reveal enough about the community and its institutions to indicate that Barbarigo's responses were not much different from those of any other merchant. The author does not pretend that this is a biography of this merchant's personal life; but rather, it is a personal way of revealing the community.

Repeatedly, the author reminds the reader that he must think in terms of a fifteenth century setting. Nevertheless, he does point out that the basic motives of the late Middle Ages were not much different from those of the twentieth century.

Nearly seventy pages are devoted to documentation and explanatory notes. The author spent much time in Italy securing source materials. The book is made quite usable by the inclusion of a lengthy index.

The technical, heavy style of this study limits the classroom use of the volume to the most capable and interested academic students of the senior high school. The social studies teacher of world history would find this a very valuable addition to his reference shelf. The detailed nature of this aspect of the late Middle Ages would be highly usable in bringing this period of history from generalities to something very personal.

JOHN C. APPEL

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PERTINENT PAMPHLETS

Edited By R. T. SOLIS-COHEN

Philadelphia, Pa.

The Arctic in Fact and Fable. By Vilhjalmur Stefansson. New York: Foreign Policy Association, 1945. Illustrated. Pp. 96. 25 cents.

This pamphlet is concerned with the comparatively undeveloped region surrounding the North Pole. Misconceptions of its nature as well as its size are among the chief handicaps to realistic thinking about the North. The writer deplores the tremendous lag between general thinking and the northward progress of geographic discovery. This gap was caused by the teachings of the ancient Greeks and by inherited southern folkways.

The ancient Greek geographers believed in the impassability of the Frozen Zones. This was disproved by the observations of Columbus and Pytheas, whose findings were not generally accepted for a long time. Pytheas was unjustly considered the greatest liar of antiquity. Other exploded Greek beliefs include the autumnal southward migration of northern animals, and the stunting of animals by the cold.

Folkways which handicap progress include rubbing snow on frostbites, refraining from snow eating when thirsty, wearing lined garments, tucking shirts into trousers, and trying to harden oneself to cold. Instead of fighting the environment, people should adapt themselves to it.

The North is becoming increasingly important for its resources—meat, fish, garden truck, mines and oil, for defense, and for commercial aviation.

Meet the Soviet Russians. By Dora A. Ames, Katrina B. Anderson, Eunice Johns, and Others. Harvard Workshop Series: No. 6. Cambridge, Mass., Harvard University, 1944. Illustrated. Pp. 89. 75 cents.

Equipped with an excellent map of the Soviet Union, a splendid selected annotated bibliography of books, periodicals, visual aids and minimum kit of essential teaching materials, this stimulating study guide to the Soviet Union is designed for secondary school teachers. It presents accurate, factual information about the Soviet Union—its geography and resources, peoples and population, history, foreign relations, and Soviet life today.

Soviet Culture in Wartime. Number 3. San Francisco, California: American Russian Institute, 101 Post Street, 1945. Illustrated. Pp. 49. 25 cents.

Lively, timely and varied in interest, this pamphlet makes interesting reading. The inside cover introduces and identifies each author by a two or three line thumb nail sketch. The theme of the pamphlet is Soviet policy with respect to education, minorities, science, psychiatry, medicine, music, films, and the theatre.

The Report of the American Russian Institute concludes this booklet.

Mexico's Role in International Intellectual Cooperation. Proceedings of the Conference Held in Albuquerque, February 24-25, 1944 under the sponsorship of the University of Texas and the University of New Mexico. Albuquerque, New Mexico: The University of New Mexico Press, 1945. Illustrated. Pp. 60. 65 cents.

These *Proceedings* deal with the indigenous cultures of Central Mexico and with international relations between the United States and Mexico.

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Edited by Norman Woelfel & I. Keith Tyler. Prepared by Staff of Evaluation of School Broadcasts Project

Deals with school broadcasts, their value, utilization, integration with school programs and service. Contains many suggestions for the use of radio as an educational tool.

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The Lost Peace. A Chronology: The League of Nations and the United States Senate, 1918-1921. Compiled by Frank Barth. New York: The Woodrow Wilson Foundation, 1945. Pp. 46.

The Lost Peace presents a summary and a more detailed account of the chronology of the peace making by the U. S. Senate, 1918-1921. Each page is arranged with the date in the left hand margin. On the same line as the date and to the right is the notation of the event. The more detailed account is divided under twenty headings e.g. I. Early Positions 1910-1916, II. Cleavage 1917, etc. The pamphlet also contains an excerpt from *As I Knew Them* on the Strategy for Rejection of the Covenant of the League of Nations, and Appendix of the Reservations as adopted in 1920, together with a selected, up-to-date bibliography.

C.I.O. Re-Employment Plan. By Philip Murray. Illustrated by Abraham Joel Tobias and Maria Anastos. Publication No. 116. Washington, D. C.: C.I.O. Department of Research and Education, 1945. Pp. 32 15 cents.

The Murray Re-Employment Plan analyzes the potential dangers to the American way of life in a possible deflationary reconversion from wartime to peacetime economy. To obviate these dangers the plan offers a seven point remedial program. It presents its scheme of industrial stabilization and expansion as a basis for consultation and cooperation with all groups of the American people.

Medical Care for Everybody? By Maxine Sweezy. Washington, D. C.: American Association of University Women, February, 1945. Illustrated. Pp. 39. 15 cents.

This is a comprehensive although biased survey of American medical economics presented by an advocate of Federal Health Insurance. Illustrations, questions and a selected bibliography are included.

Improving Education for Social-Civic Competence in the Southern States. By Mary L. Anderson, Robert E. Cureton, Newell D. Eason, Butler A. Jones, Evelyn Lawlah, Charity Mance, Albert E. Manley, James E. Pierce, Jennie B. Ramsey, John T.

Robinson. Reprinted from *Southern Association Quarterly*, February 1945. Pp. 20.

The improvement of living conditions in the South is the objective of the authors. The conditions are subdivided into various phases of the situation—health, housing, employment, inter-group relations, civic competence and consumer efficiency. The writers state their credo, the seven objectives of education, the curricular activities and methods planned to attain these goals and their evaluation.

How to Prepare the Schedule for a Secondary School. By Leo Ivok. Harvard Workshop Series: No. 5. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University, 1944. Illustrated. Pp. 26. 75 cents.

The usual methods of schedule-making lack systematization as well as simple controls of all the essential elements in the situation. Mr. Ivok's method is simpler and more effective than most other plans in use.

Federal-State Relations in Education. Problems and Policies Committee, American Council on Education, and Educational Policies Commission, National Education Association, and the American Association of School Administrators. Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1945. Pp. 47. 25 cents.

The Commissions issuing this report believe that the present trend toward further federalizing education is a dangerous one. However, they approve of Federal financial assistance to establish a minimum of education for all and of Federal advisory, non-coercive leadership. They hold that control of education belongs to the States and that a decentralized pattern of educational organization is the more desirable.

Education and the World of Tomorrow. By Harry James Carman. Detroit: Wayne University Press, 1945. Pp. 15.

The World of Tomorrow requires social engineering for human betterment. Science and technology are means to attaining these goals. Adapted to their attainment in this world of tomorrow, we want an integrated system of education, competent, inspiring teachers and improved graduate schools.

Carnegie Endowment for International Peace.

Annual Report for 1944 of the Division of Intercourse and Education. By Nicholas Murray Butler, Director. Washington, D. C.: Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, 1945. Pp. 48.

This Report tells of the work done in the United States, Canada, Latin America, Australia, the Near and Far East, South Africa, Geneva, Vatican City, and the United Kingdom. Activities throughout the world include field work with other organizations, radio broadcasts, visiting Carnegie professors and fellows, and distribution of literature.

Profile of Salazar. By Luiz Teixeira. Lisbon: S P N Books, 1945. Pp. 77.

This book presents material for the history of the life and times of Antomo de Oliveira Salazar, the versatile Portuguese scholar, professor, philosopher, and educator, who was also a journalist, financier, patriot, and statesman. He believed that politics must always be guided by the necessity of bringing economic interests into line with moral interests. A member of the Academic Center of Christian Democracy whose device was "Faith, Study and Action," he disapproved of the anti-religious form which democracy had taken in the Latin world.

The excellent literary quality and easy readability of this pamphlet are not seriously affected by numerous typographical errors. The latter suggest a printer unfamiliar with the English language.

The Library Key. By Zaidee Brown. New York: H. W. Wilson Company, 1945. Pp. 146. 70 cents.

An aid in using books and libraries efficiently, this booklet provides up-to-date bibliographical information suitable for adults. It serves as a guide to standard library tools and to the special aids available in the various subject fields.

CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

City Developments: Studies in Disintegration and Renewal. By Lewis Mumford. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1945. Pp. 248. \$2.00.

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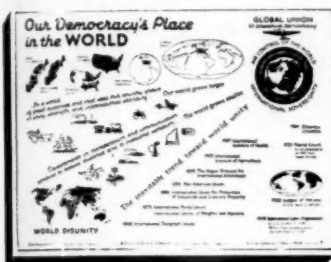
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Foundations of Post-War Building," and on the "New Plan for London," are now published for the first time in the United States.

One America: The History, Contributions, and Present Problems of Our Racial and National Minorities. Edited by Francis J. Brown and Joseph Slabey Roucek. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1945. Pp. xvi, 717. \$3.75.

The revision aims to note the changes due to the war and to consider their potential continuance in the post-war period. Some chapters have been written by contributors other than those of the first edition and new chapters have been added.

Your Problem—Can It Be Solved? By Dwight J. Bradley. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1945. Pp. 213. \$2.00.

A pastor and consultant gives a series of interviews between himself and an individual with a definite problem and suggests a technique by which personal problems may be solved.

Korea and the Old Orders in Eastern Asia. By M. Frederick Nelson. Baton Rouge, Louisiana: Louisiana State University Press, 1945. Pp. xvi, 326. \$3.75.

The study, developed as a doctoral thesis, was made to explain the old international system in Asia before Western political concepts reached the Far East.

The Growth of German Historicism. By Friedrich Engel-Janosi. The Johns Hopkins University Studies in Historical and Political Science, Series LXII, No. 2. Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins Press, 1944. Pp. 101, xiv. Paper cover. \$1.25.

A study of the leading German historical writers of the nineteenth century.

Backgrounds of Conflict: Ideas and Forms in World Politics. By Kurt London. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1945. Pp. xvi, 487. \$3.75.

A presentation of some of the facts concerning the origins and development of the political philosophies which led to the Second World War.

The German Record: A Political Portrait. By William Ebenstein. New York: Farrar

and Rinehart, Inc., 1945. Pp. ix, 334. \$2.25.

A history of German politics from the time of the Prussian origins to the present.

A Long Pull from Stavanger. By Birger Osland. Northfield, Minnesota: Norwegian-American Historical Association, 1945. Pp. 263. \$2.50.

The reminiscences of a Norwegian immigrant.

The Glass Industry. By Josephine Perry. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1945. Pp. 128. Illustrated. \$1.75.

The Electrical Industry. By Josephine Perry. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1945. Pp. 128. Illustrated. \$1.75.

Simply written and attractively illustrated volumes of the America at Work Series for boys and girls.

The Annihilation of Man: A Study of the Crisis in the West. By Leslie Paul. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1945. Pp. 214. \$2.50.

The author, a British soldier, writing from the armed forces, finds in the Nazi challenge the need for the conservation of Christian values to combat the forces of the materialist world.

Introduction to Global Geography: How to Study Maps and Globes. By Bernice Baxter and Thad Stevens. San Francisco: Harr Wagner Publishing Company, 1945. Pp. vii, 122. Illustrated.

A book to teach the reading and the use of the new maps of our air age.

American Social Problems: An Introduction to the Study of the People and Their Dilemmas. By Howard W. Odum. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1945. Pp. xxv, 549. \$3.00.

A revised edition.

The Japanese Nation. By John F. Embree. New York: Farrar and Rinehart, Inc., 1945. Pp. xi, 308. Illustrated. \$2.25.

A social survey, with emphasis on government, religion, schools, and the network of social relations making up the national structure.

The Social Studies

Volume XXXVI, Number 7

Continuing The Historical Outlook

November, 1945

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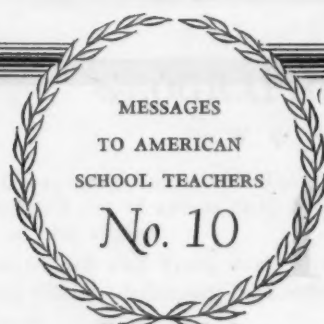
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